DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 148 041 EC 103 070

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TITLE A Study of the Role Definitions of the Special Education Resource Specialist.
INSTITUTION California Univ., Riverside. School of Education.
SPONS AGENCY California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Div. of Special Education.
PUB DATE Jun 76
NOTE 128p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$7.35 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; *Handicapped Children; *Resource Staff Role; *Resource Teachers; *Role Perception; Staff Utilization
IDENTIFIERS California

ABSTRACT

Described is a project designed to examine the role of the public school resource specialist in serving exceptional children in California. The first section examines the establishment of the resource specialist role by the California Master Plan for Special Education, provides a historical review of school responses to exceptional children, and considers organizational factors affecting the resource specialist. A section on research methods describes the observational study of nine specialist teachers and the probability study of role perceptions in which data on demographic characteristics and work assignment information was gathered. Major findings are discussed in terms of descriptive findings (including a review of three approaches--clinical-therapeutic, categorical problem remediation, and normalization), and seven policy relevant findings (including differences in the perceptions of role groups concerning how specialist teachers divide their attention and time, and the conclusion that specialists with a normalization approach spend large amounts of time with work not directly related to the needs of exceptional students). Implications of the clinical-therapeutic and remedial-instructional approach are discussed, and 12 recommendations for training, policy making, and research are listed. (CL)

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A STUDY OF THE ROLE DEFINITIONS FOR THE SPECIAL EDUCATION RESOURCE SPECIALIST

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California State Deptartment of Education (#75-147)

June, 1976

ED103070

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FOREWORD

Under authorization provided by Education Code section 18104, the California State Department of Education, Office of Special Education, made research grant #75-147 to the University of California, Riverside for the period July 1, 1975 to June 30, 1976. The purpose of this research grant was to study role definitions for Special Education Resource Specialists being created as school districts adopt and implement the California Master Plan for Special Education (MPSE). This report reviews the procedures utilized in that research, summarizes the major findings, and analyzes several important implications of the major conclusions to be drawn from the research data.

The research on which this report is based consisted of two complementary but quite distinct activities. One part of the research consisted of a year-long intense ethnographic study of nine school-based specialist teachers. The second part of the research involved the survey of a statistical probability sample of regular and specialist teachers and school site and district central office administrators in Riverside County, California. The main purpose of the ethnographic study was to gather detailed information regarding the organization and operation of specialist services within the school system. The statistical survey study examined the perceptions of school professionals regarding: 1) the work activities of specialists, 2) the basis on which decisions regarding special education services are or should be made, and 3) the levels of stress regarding the integration of specialist services into the school program.

Recommendations in three general areas are presented in the concluding section of this report. First, two recommendations are offered regarding the training of school personnel. These training recommendations arise

because the research found evidence to indicate that the current expectations regarding the Resource Specialist role held by classroom teachers, school administrators, and specialist personnel are often diffuse and sometimes at odds with the most promising organization of that role. A second set of five recommendations regarding state level and local school district policy decisions related to the Resource Specialist role are drawn from the research findings. These policy recommendations are presented in order to highlight the most critical requirements for a successful implementation of the Resource Specialist program in the schools. Finally, five areas of further research are proposed to expand our understanding of the relationships between the provision of services for children with exceptional needs and other dimensions of the organization and implementation of school programs. For some these recommendations may not seem to contain anything essentially new or radically innovative. That is perhaps as it should be, they are not offered because of their dramatic qualities, but because they are supported by the evidence to be presented in this report. Speculation about educational policy matters is so abundant in the last few years that it is difficult to find any ideas which have not been aired on some occasion or other. What is difficult is to find educational policy analysis which is carefully based more on hard information than on earnest desires.

It is appropriate to note in this foreword that one significant modification of the originally proposed research was required by conditions discovered during early field interviews. The original proposal anticipated that school district personnel would have a rich and fairly detailed set of expectations about how Resource Specialists should fit into present school settings. It became quite obvious during the first days the research

team spent in the field that this was an unwarranted assumption. School personnel typically responded to our inquiries about their expectations or hopes regarding the implementation of the Master Plan, or the creation of Resource Specialist positions with a request for whatever information we could give them regarding the planning and implementation of the MPSE. It became immediately obvious that if we hoped to gather useful data about educators' realistic expectations regarding this role we would have to change our approach to this aspect of the study. While the change necessitated by this discovery presented some practical difficulties in the execution of the study, it can now be said that the resulting study is of far greater importance and of more widespread relevance to an understanding of the use of specialist teachers in schools than the original design would have produced. We solved the problem of diffuse and/or non-existent expectations about the Resource Specialist role by broadening our questioning of school personnel to cover their views on the whole range of special education services within the schools. In order to interpret the data generated from this broader inquiry into the way schools utilized specialist services for children with exceptional needs, we found it necessary to search the broad spectrum of organizational role formation literature and to develop a fairly comprehensive theory of specialized work performance in the schools. As the remainder of this report will make evident, this broader perspective on specialist teaching roles provides an important basis for policy formation, program design, and training of educators.

In addition to the principal investigator, the research team for this project consisted of Mr. Donald B. Reed and Mr. Steven Piscatell, research assistsnts, and Mrs. Nancy Richardson, secretary. The contributions of each of these team members is gratefully acknowledged. Each has contributed significantly to this final product.

I. BACKGROUND FOR THE RESEARCH: SPECIALIST TEACHERS AND THEIR WORK

The research undertaken in this project has been shaped by three sets of background factors. First, the research was directed specifically toward the Resource Specialist role which is being developed under the MPSE. Second, the research sought to examine the Resource Specialist role in relation to the public schools typical responses to children with exceptional needs. And third, the research developed from a particular theoretical perspective on the processes of role definition and work flow within school organizations. In this section, each of these three background factors will be briefly reviewed to indicate its contribution to the research effort.

I. A. The Resource Specialist and the Master Plan for Special Education

One major goal of the California Master Plan for Special Education is the provision of needed supportive services which will enable learning handicapped children to continue to participate in the educational mainstream.[1] In order to facilitate the achievement of this goal Section 7018 of AB 4040 (1974), calls for the creation of a Resource Specialist role within the local school. The Resource Specialist would have responsibilities for providing some instructional services directly to children with exceptional needs as well as for coordination, consultation, guidance, and resource development in support of the regular classroom teaching program.

Although the Master Plan does not set out specific details for the Resource Specialist role, planning documents generated by pilot school districts, and administrative regulations developed by the California State Department of Education provide significant guidance regarding its development.[2] Generally speaking, the Resource Specialist role consists of three related areas of work responsibility. First, Resource Specialists are expected to have assigned to them a number of student-clients with those

types of exceptional needs which fall within certain program guidelines. As part of their duties the Resource Specialists would provide each of these children with whatever direct educational services are needed above and beyond those provided through the regular classroom program. The services to be provided in this way might consist of treatments designed to help the exceptional child overcome physical, emotional, or other learning problems, or may involve the utilization of specialized instructional techniques which would support or expand the exceptional child's academic achievement.[3]

A second anticipated area of Resource Specialist work responsibility consists of consultation services to regular classroom teachers.[4] Resource Specialists are expected to provide help to regular class teachers in the area of instructional media development--assisting with the development of materials and other study supplements geared to the needs of exceptional children. The Resource Specialist is also expected to be able to provide regular class teachers with specific and detailed knowledge about exceptional children and how to meet their particular needs.

The third area of Resource Specialist work responsibility concerns the coordination of various special education services within each local school.[5] The specialist is expected to serve on a school site assessment and evaluation committee which controls special education program placement. In this role, the Resource Specialist should have a major part to play in coordinating the movement of children into and out of special education programs at each school location. Further, the Resource Specialist would provide the school principal and other professional staff with information and advice concerning which children should be referred for district level placement into specialized programs not available at each school site. In addition to the coordination of these evaluation and placement functions, the Resource

Specialist is expected to have significant responsibility for the scheduling of children whose exceptional needs have been identified into regular classroom and special treatment activities. This scheduling responsibility would apply not only to the physical assignment of the child to one room or program, but also to the sequence and content of various educational activities as well.

Superintendent of Public Instruction, Wilson Riles, has identified as "pivotal" the role of the Resource Specialist mandated under the MPSE.[6] Local school districts, however, have only limited experience with roles of this type. Moreover, a review of the available literature concerning efforts to bring children with exceptional needs into mainstream educational programs suggests that careful analysis and planning will be required in order to achieve within the schools the sort of working relationships anticipated by the MPSE.

I. B. School Responses to Exceptional Children

The literature on school responses to exceptional children follows two main lines of interpretation. One body of literature has taken the historical perspective and describes the evolution of school programs related to exceptionality.[7] A second line of interpretation can be found in literature describing the school programs which deal with various types of exceptional needs.[8] A full understanding of the mandate to create Resource Specialists under the MPSE requires a brief review of each of these two bodies of professional and scholarly literature.

Historical Analysis.--Historically, the response of the public schools to the education of children with exceptional needs has passed through three distinct stages. Jane Mercer has described the sequence of school responses, summarizing these responses under three headings: exclusion, deviant status

placement, and normalization.

Exclusion.--Typically schools first responded to children of exceptional need by excluding them from the educational enterprise.

> When the schools have been faced with differences of any kind--behavioral, cultural, racial or intellectual--the typical response has been expulsion or exclusion, treating the child as an outsider, a stranger.[9]

Deviant Status.--The second stage described by Mercer was one in which children with exceptional needs were provided access within the system, but one in which that access was specially designed and maintained.

> Immense effort was expended from 1920 through the 1960's to force the public schools to provide special classes within the system for children who had formerly been excluded--the physically handicapped gained entree in the 1920's; the cerebral palsied in the 1940's; and the mentally retarded in the 1950's. Thus, for some types of deviant behavior, the policy shifted from exclusion to deviant status placement.[10]

This period which spans the years from around 1920 to about 1960, produced two major changes in the organizational structure of the schools. First a separate system was developed for special education, commonly involving self-contained special classes or special schools, with a separate administrative structure. School systems became bifurcated into regular and special education components.[11]

Not only did special education take a different administrative and organizational structure, but the nature of the enterprise itself had a different focus. As Macmillan, et. al. put it,

> When children were placed in a special EMR class they were placed into a program which had goals and objectives quite different from general education. The activities were geared towards vocational competence and social adjustment to a far greater extent than was true for regular education.[12]

General education modified its own structure as well by making "the graded approach less arbitrary by permitting pupils to progress at dif-

ferent rates of speed on 'multiple-track' or individualized programs"; organizing the "students within a given grade level through ability grouping"; and by introducing "ungraded grouping, especially during the early elementary years, as in Milwaukee during the early 1940's."[13]

Normalization.--The third stage of school response described by Mercer resulted from a fundamental change in attitudes about the school. This stage stresses the return of the exceptional child to the regular classroom setting. As Mercer states:

> ...other members of the system may attempt to 'normalize' the deviant's behavior so that he or she is able to meet group expectations. The normalization may be attempted through intensifying the socialization processes by education, rehabilitation psychotherapy, behavioral management or other similar approaches. When normalization strategies are used, the deviant member is not removed from the group and expectations for role performance remain essentially in tact.[14]

In this stage children with exceptional needs are not totally removed from the regular educational program, but rather are provided with supplementary services to make it more likely that success can be achieved in the regular class.[15]

Two important points are implied in Mercer's analysis. First, the schools have changed and are still changing in their responses to exceptional children. These changes have not arisen by chance, nor can we understand the operation of special educational services without taking account of the forces which are responsible for them. Three factors are primarily responsible for the re-structuring of the school's response to exceptional children: 1) efficacy studies questioning the effectiveness of special as compared with regular class placements for the mildly retarded exceptional children;[16] 2) a series of recent court rulings in favor of the rights exceptional and minority children to challenge their placement in

special or "tracked" programs,[17] and 3) studies of the destructive social consequences of labelling students in order to assign them to special programs.[18] Beyond these external pressures for change, as Dunn has pointed out, there are internal factors facilitating the shift in emphasis from deviant status placement to normalization of the exceptional child. Changes in school organization, curriculum, school personnel, and instructional hardware, are cited by Dunn as contributing to the re-organization of special education.[19]

The second important point implied in Mercer's analysis of the historical movement from exclusion to deviant status placement to normalization is that the schools have resisted change at least as vigorously as they have sought it.[20] External pressures by legislatures, parents groups, educational research groups, and the courts have been required at nearly every stage in the growth of school responsibility for the education of exceptional children. Changes have come, but they have had to be based on fairly tough-minded demands from non-school persons before effective actions were taken. Since these pressure tactics have played such a large part in the transformation of special education programs in the school, it is not at all certain that the present programs represent the most effective or most reasonable approaches. It may be that current special education programs have been shaped with more than a furtive eye to their effectiveness in relieving external pressures rather than as a comprehensive response to the specialized needs of the exceptional children.

Programatic Analysis.--The second approach to describing schools' responses to exceptional need takes a programatic rather than an historical view and thus identifies school responses in terms of the types of special education programs which have been developed to meet children's exceptional

needs. Generally speaking, the literature in this second genre is concerned with the characterization of various exceptionalities and the assessment of the effectiveness of various treatment strategies in reducing or eliminating the problems encountered by the exceptional child. Although the research upon which this report is based is not concerned with the effectiveness of various treatment strategies, the treatment literature has been very helpful in documenting one important organizational aspect of the schools' typical special education program patterns. Typically, this literature reveals, schools have distinguished two broad classes of exceptional needs among children: 1) exceptional needs springing from developmental problems, and 2) exceptional needs springing from academic achievement problems.[21] Developmental problems include physical handicaps, mental retardation (or giftedness), neurotic and psychotic psychological disturbances and other functional or organic disorders which are evidenced by identifiable symptoms inherent within the child.

Academic achievement exceptionalities are evidenced by the child's failure to perform adequately within the regular curricular program of the school. Exceptionalities of this type may not be traceable to any identifiable organic or psychological problems within the child.[22] Achievement related exceptionalities have been a source of intense public debate and extensive programatic innovation during the past two decades. Claims about the causes of achievement problems have included such things as: 1) inadequacy or differences in family cultures, 2) teacher incompetence or insensitivity, 3) racial or ethnic prejudice, 4) administrative irresponsibility and/or unresponsiveness, 5) genetic defects, 6) the abandonment of "the fundamentals" in school programs, 7) variations in student learning modalities, 8) inappropriate classroom environmental or social climate

characteristics and 9) slight or undiagnosable organic or functional disorders of the same types as are responsible for identified developmental disabilities (to mention but a few of the most popular accounts of the achievement problems).

From an organizational perspective the most important result of this tendency to separate achievement and developmental types of exceptional need has been the creation of two separate school response systems; one devoted to each of these two broad classes of exceptionality. Some school personnel and programs have adopted what we might call a "clinical-therapeutic" approach toward exceptional children.[23] Those taking this approach tend to see exceptionality in developmental terms and seek to alleviate, or at least minimize the effects of organic or psychologically based disabilities which prevent normal development within the school program. The other approach, usually thought of as "remedial instruction" seeks to assist children in overcoming achievement problems so that they can be re-intergrated into the regular program or, as more frequently occurs, maintain a marginally satisfactory rate of achievement with the special help provided.[24] Programs and persons representing both of these approaches are generally found side-by-side in each school. The school psychologist and the speech therapist typify the clinical therapeutic approach to developmental exceptionalities, while the remedial reading or math teacher typifies the remedial instructional approach to achievement problems.

It should be noted that the historical development of special educational programs is closely related to this broad division between clinical and remedial strategies of response. During the period of exclusion, neither achievement nor developmental handicaps were thought to be matters of public school responsibility. Only during the deviant status period did

school psychologists and other therapeutic specialists begin to find regular places in the school organization. The emergence of the remedial specialists is a still more recent phenomena. Only with the emergence of what Mercer calls the normalization period in the schools' response to exceptionality has there been extensive or regular use of remedial specialists in the schools. The concept of "mainstreaming" of the exceptional child which has emerged quite recently represents the potential dominance of a remedial and achievement orientation toward exceptionality over the older clinical and therapeutic orientation which arose between 1920 and 1960.

The Resource Specialist conceived by the Master Plan represents a potential integration of the clinical and remedial approaches to exceptionality. As conceptualized in the MPSE, the Resource Specialist would be expected to move easily back and forth between clinical and remedial approaches. With the help of more highly trained school psychologists, this special teacher should be able to assist in diagnosis of developmental problems and the perscription of the appropriate therapeutic treatments, but when the problems encountered by the exceptional child are related to achievement, the specialist is supposed to provide innovative or concentrated instructional assistance based more on pedagogical expertise than on diagnostic skills.

While the hopes for the Resource Specialist role are reasonably specific and promising, it remains to be seen whether it is possible to produce an integration of clinical and remedial approaches to exceptional children. The emergent role definition for Resource Specialists, as we have tried to suggest, depends more upon the historical development of special education and the growing range of pedagogical and therapeutic skills available through special education programs than upon a clear or deeply felt need for new

roles within the school organization. Once again, the schools are being pushed and cajoled into programatic developments which may not be thoroughly understood at the school site level--where they will have to be implemented.

Successful implementation of the Resource Specialist program in the local school will require not only a clear set of expectations for the specialist himself, but also a new orientation toward special education programs by other members of the school staff. Therefore, it is appropriate to examine not only the role of various types of specialist teachers, but also the set of tasks which make up the work flow in various special education programs in order to assess the possibilities for new role definitions for specialist teachers in relation to regular teachers, principals, and central office staff members in the school system.

I. C. Role Definitions and the Special Education Work Flow

In order for a complex organization such as a school, to work effectively members of that organization must know ehat is expected of them in the performance of their work. We call these patterns of expectation which guide the activities of individuals who work together "roles".[25] How smoothly and effectively an organization will work depends to a large extent on two factors: 1) whether each member of the organization has a clear set of expectations for his own role (that is, whether the members have clear role definitions), and 2) whether all those who must work together have similar or convergent role definitions for each other.[26] If there is fuzziness in an individual's own role definition he becomes anxious and disoriented within the organization and is not likely to be very productive.[27] If there are significant conflicts between various members' definitions of a given organizational role, the person is that position will experience high levels of stress and tension

in his working relationships with others.[28] This stress will lead him to either withdraw from others or to divert energy from productive work in order to try to change or cope with other's expectations of him.[29] It is possible, therefore, to learn much about a school or other organization by studying the roles which have been created within it--asking whether the expectations for these roles are clear and similarly defined by all those who must work cooperatively in order for the organization to be productive.

Within the public school system a large and growing number of specific roles can be readily identified. The most familiar roles include the teacher, the student, the principal and the superintendent. A number of specialized roles are also familiar to everyone. The football coach, the music teacher, and the school nurse are examples of roles where special skills and special ways of working are readily apparent. In recent years, the visitor to a school hears references to many new roles. To the layman the titles for these new roles may sound a bit confusing. However, educators now speak easily and often of such roles as: Title I Coordinator, Reading and Math Specialist, Learning Disabilities Teacher, etc. Not much is known about these new roles. We do not even know how many there are, much less what special expectations about them are held either by those who work in these roles or those who must work with them. We do know that many new roles have arisen as a result of state and federal level school policy. Categorical aid programs have frequently called for the creation of new educational services for identifiable learning problems or student populations with exceptional needs.

In this study we have examined only a few of those roles which are found in the school. Specifically, this study has looked at those staff

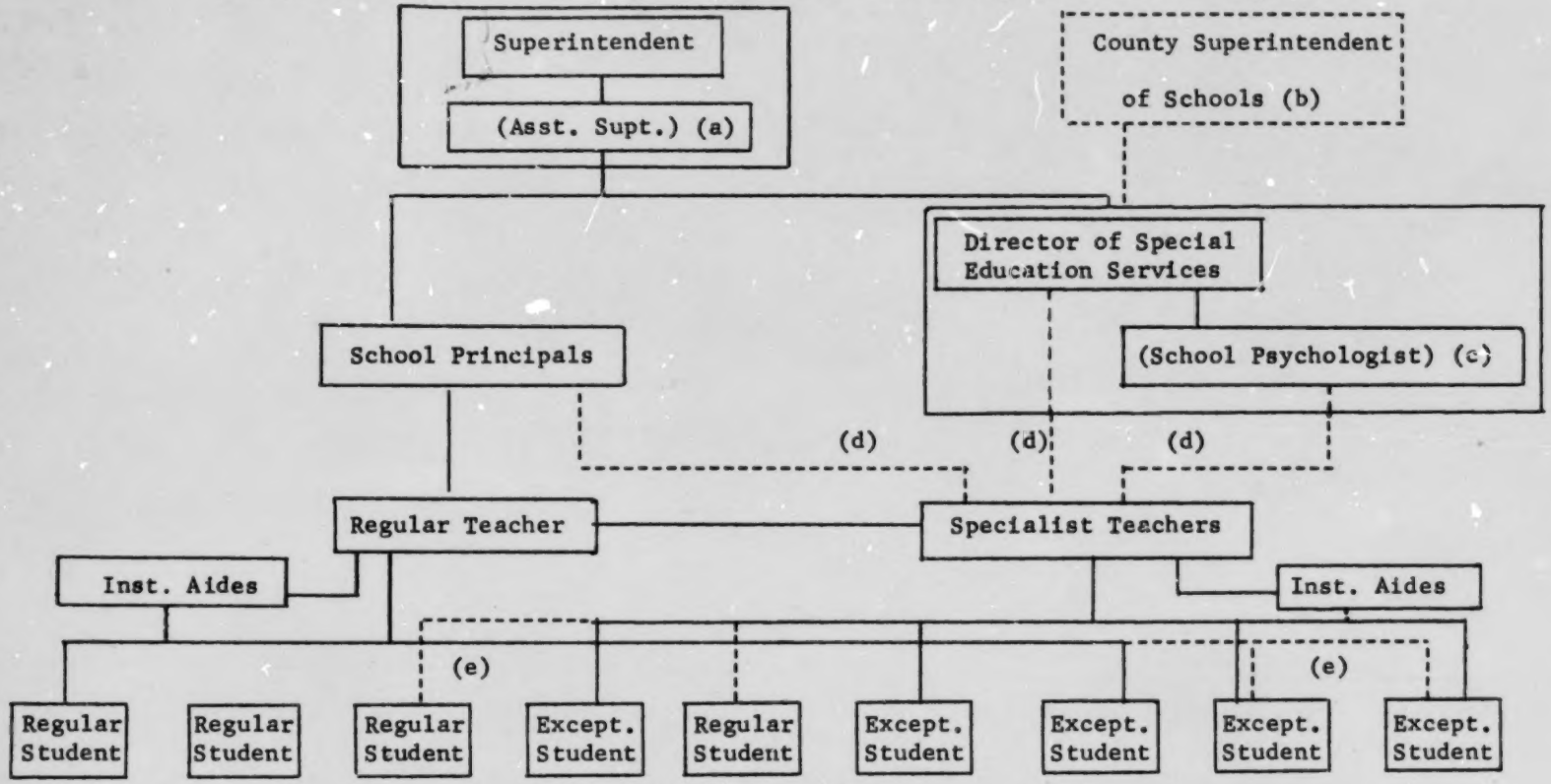
members with direct responsibility for serving children with exceptional needs. Taken together, two complementary approaches to the organization of special educational services in the schools bring the specialist teacher into clear perspective. First, an examination of the typical school district organization of special education programs will reveal the pattern of relationships among various educators involved. Secondly, a review of the work flow or set of work activities which make up the special education programs will identify the important interactions among the staff members who must cooperate in order to meet the needs of exceptional children.

Organizational Structure.--Figure A presents the organizational pattern typically utilized by school districts in the development and implementation of special education programs. There are, of course, a great many variations on this typical pattern. These variations depend on the size of the school district, the eligibility of the district for categorical aid funds of various types, the degree of centralization or decentralization in the district management, and the interests and inclinations of superintendents, special education supervisors and school principals; to name but a few of the sources of variation. In mounting the study being reported here it was necessary to develop a generalized picture of specialist teachers and their important relationships with other school staff members. Figure B presents the simplified set of roles and their interaction patterns which was utilized as the framework for this study. As this figure reveals, the relationships with two obviously important groups were not closely examined. The county level special education department administrators, and the widely available instructional aides were both largely ignored in this study. The elimination of these two groups was based purely on questions of economy in the use of time and staff resources available for this study, and not a judgment that

Figure A

The Typical Pattern of Professional Roles Related to

Children With Exceptional Needs Who Continue to Have Regular Classroom Experience



(a) Whether or not an assistant or associate superintendent stands between the superintendent and the principals depends on the size of the district.

(b) Smaller districts receive all or part of their categorical special education services from the County Superintendent's office. These districts will frequently have other specialist teachers, such as Reading or Math Specialists under direct administrative control however.

16

20

Figure A (continued)

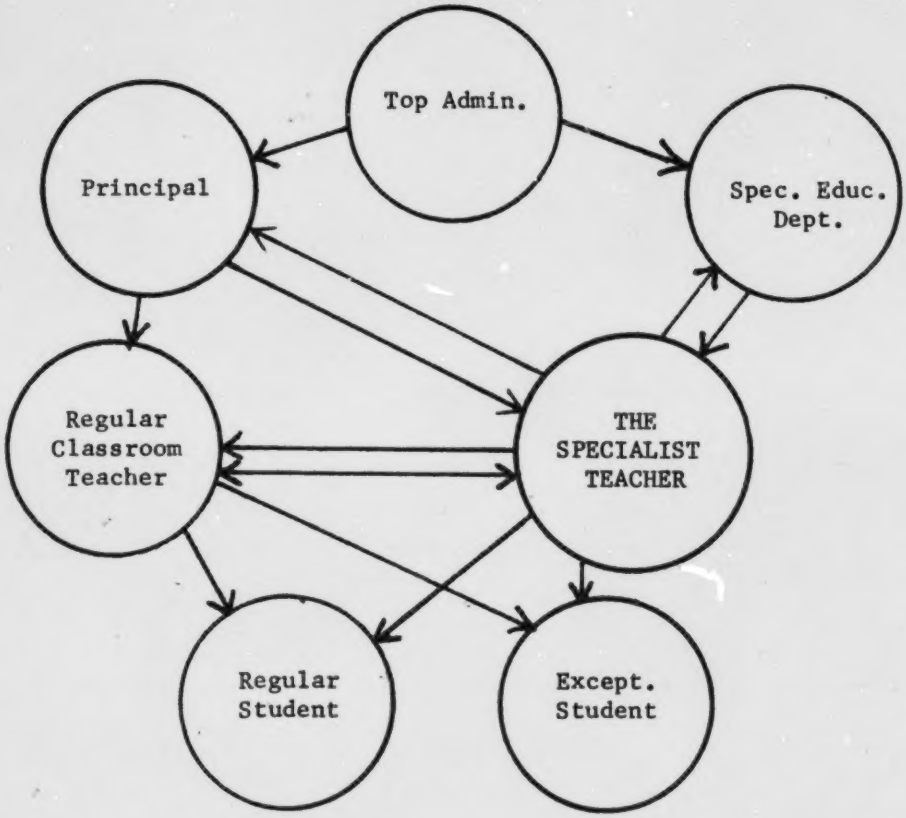
(c) In some districts the school psychologist is the director of special education services, in others psychological service personnel serve as staff members to the director of special education with no direct supervisory responsibility over specialist teachers.

(d) Districts vary with regard to how much supervisory responsibility is given to principals, psychological services, or special educational services directors. Different teaching specialists within the same district may also have different administrative supervision patterns.

(e) There are all shades of relationship between the assignment of pupils to the regular classroom teacher and the specialist teacher. At one extreme the exceptional student is removed to another room or another campus for schooling and leaves the control of the regular teacher entirely. At the other extreme the student is tested or observed and declared to be not eligible for exceptional services and therefore no longer the concern of the specialist teacher.

they are irrelevant or insignificant. Compared to the actors retained in the final study plan they appear to be of secondary importance, but this appear-

Figure B.



ance may be deceiving, and should be checked by further research.

Work Flow.[30]--Clear and compatible role definitions are necessary, but they do not guarantee effective work output from any organization. Not only must everyone know what he is expected to do, the tasks must also be the ones needed to reach the output goals. Sometimes the work of the organization is not effectively performed because the effort to avoid role conflicts and reduce stress leads people to abandon productivity expecta-

tions (either for themselves or for others).[31] At other times, however, the problem has more to do with inadequate or incomplete knowledge about just who will perform what tasks in order to reach the work goals. If, for example, early detection is essential in order to treat some children's exceptional needs, but no diagnostic testing is done until the child is experiencing severe problems with his school work, then we can expect that little effective remediation of these exceptional needs will take place--even if everyone is working just as hard and as compatibly as possible. It is important, therefore to examine the work of regular and specialist teachers in terms of the flow of the work relating to exceptional needs. By identifying the work flow and asking who takes responsibility at each stage in the work flow for various tasks, it is possible to determine how the work can be improved by changing various role definitions for those who are responsible.

A review of the literature on special educational services, combined with observational and interview data gathered during the preliminary stages of this study suggest that the work flow in relation to children with exceptional needs has nine distinct stages. These are:

Stage 1: The identification of a problem which indicates that the child may have exceptional needs.[32]

At the present time, responsibility for the initial identification of problems rests almost entirely with the regular classroom teacher. Only rarely do other staff members have an opportunity to observe a child or test his capacities without the regular classroom teacher first calling attention to the potential problem.

Stage 2: Consultation between Specialist and non-specialist personnel.[33]

Often informally and frequently quite formally, the regular classroom

teacher will discuss some indication of possible exceptional need with specialist personnel. Through these consultations the teachers refine and develop ideas about exceptionality, its recognition and treatment. In some cases the consultation ends the process of specialist attention to a problem because either the regular teacher's views about the meaning of early indications of exceptionality are changed and hence the problem simply disappears "by definition", or else the regular teacher is helped to devise ways of responding to the identified exceptional need within the regular school program.

Stage 3: Referal of students for specialist diagnostic analysis.[34]

If the identified problem persists, and seems to correspond to ones for which special education services are provided, the child will be refered to the specialist for diagnosis and testing to determine the specific nature and extent of the exceptional need. At this point, as will be seen more fully in the findings from this study (Section VII), there is much opportunity for role conflict and stress to develop. Teachers may view the referal process as needlessly time consuming since they "already know what the problem is", or the specialists who receive the referals may form strong opinions about the responsibility of the teachers for contributing to the problems which they encounter.

Stage 4: Diagnostic testing, evaluation and certification of exceptional need.[35]

Once a referal has been made by the teacher and accepted by the specialist, the exceptional child undergoes an analysis of his needs and a decision is made about whether or not he is to be certified for placement in one of the school's special education programs. The organization and control of this evaluation and certification process is a major factor in the school's special education programming. Both legal and organizational factors complicate the process

and lead to high potential for conflict among administrators, specialists and regular teachers.

Stage 5: Placement of exceptional children in special programs.[36]

To those outside the school organization, the certification and placement activities are often believed to be identical. Even casual observation, however, quickly reveals that there is often substantial lag between the formal certification of children and their actual entrance into special programs. Frequently the delays result from overcrowding of programs, but other sources of delay are also present, such as the need to secure the cooperation of parents, or the need to arrange for transportation or re-assignment of the child to a school with the needed program. Even when there is no delay in the placement of the child, there is frequently a need to identify the specific programatic features which will best meet the child's exceptional needs and hence a separate placement decision follows the certification. In this regard the decision about exactly which of the available specialists or regular teachers are most compatible with the child's needs is often the subject of considerable discussion in the placement process.[37]

Stage 6: Scheduling of special education services.

Planning the work schedule does not appear as a separate stage in the work when the exceptional child is assigned to a completely self-contained class or special school. However, when more than one teacher share in the instruction of a child, either by working together in the same room or by moving the child from one room to another, the scheduling of the special education services takes on major importance. Not only must the cooperating professionals decide on the timing and sequence of their relationships with the exceptional child, they must also decide which professional will provide various specific instructional or treatment services.[38]

Stage 7: Performance of the special education services.

Once the special education services have been planned and scheduled, of course they must still be delivered. The utilization of certain instructional activities or therapeutic techniques to some extent distinguish the work of specialist teachers from other school staff members. Even more, the size of the student group and the length of time spent with the students is characteristically different for specialist and regular teachers.

Stage 8: Assessment and evaluation of student progress.[39]

At some point the exceptional child is once again examined to determine the effectiveness of the special educational services being provided. One of the important sources of role conflict in the schools arises from the fact that there are often disagreements about the basis for evaluating student progress. One of the legacies of the deviant status placement phase in special education is the belief by large numbers of people--educators and non-educators alike--that special education programs should be much more oriented toward development of rudimentary vocational and social competencies than the regular school program. As a result, there are often divergent values being brought to bear in the interpretation of the progress of exceptional students.

Stage 9: Discharge of the exceptional child from specialized programs.

One expectation of special education which should create this final stage in its work flow is that it will successfully restore a significant number of exceptional students to the regular school program by helping them to completely overcome or compensate for their exceptional needs. This stage does not appear to be easily reached within special education programs, and hence this stage of the work flow is not readily studied. In the research reported here no clear evidence of this discharge stage was gathered or analyzed. The research team believes that it should be studied carefully--there appears to be a great deal at stake in the process of completely re-

turning children to the educational mainstream. School funds depend on certification of exceptional need, teachers may view the re-assignment of children once certified as exceptional back into the regular program as a burdensome and bad practice.[40] Children in specialized programs may be unable to return to the regular program because of a lack of articulation between the two rather than a lack of ability to cope with regular program activities. All of these possibilities are important but not well studied.

II. METHODS OF STUDY: AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

With the perspective on specialist teaching services provided by the background materials in the previous section, we turn now to the methods of study methods utilized in this research project. Due to a general lack of useful previous research on how specialized teachers do their work in the schools, data gathering for this research project presented a fairly complicated set of problems. In order to draw useful conclusions it was important to have both the richness and detail found in data generated through intensive ethnographic observations and the statistical reliability and generality resulting from large sample survey data.[41] The ethnographic approach is critical in cases where, as in the present study, there is no generally accepted theory which focuses attention on particular variables which can confidently be expected to be controlling the processes under investigation. Significant policy-making, however, calls for the study of much larger samples than can be realistically studied in great detail, given limited time and resources. The approach taken in this study was to divide the available resources approximately equally between the study of a theoretically important but small sample of specialist teachers who hold positions in the schools which are, in important respects, analogous to those which can be expected to arise from the establishment of Resource Specialist positions under the MPSE, and a moderately large stratified random sample of teachers, administrators and specialist personnel in all of the schools in Riverside County, California. The next few paragraphs describe the sampling and study procedures used to examine each of these two groups.

II. A. Methods Utilized in an Intensive Observational Study of Nine Specialist Teachers

The methodology employed in the ethnographic field study was divided

into two broad areas. These two areas were: 1) the location and identification of a suitable sample of specialists, and 2) the collection of observational data regarding the work activities of the specialists identified for the sample.

As was pointed out earlier in this report (Section I. A.), by carefully examining the role of the Resource Specialist described in the California Master Plan for Special Education (AB 4040), the Administrative Rules and Regulations (Title V) developed to operationalize the California Master Plan, and the role descriptions for Resource Specialists contained in the comprehensive plans of the six LEA's who received grants to develop special education master plans, three characteristics of the work of Resource Specialists can be identified. These characteristics specify how Resource Specialists should relate to students, to other educators, and to specific types of exceptionality. The Resource Specialist will work (or is supposed to work) closely with both pupils and classroom teachers. The Resource Specialist will (or should) play an important role in the coordination of special education programs and the selection of pupils to receive special services. Finally, the quality of the services rendered to pupils by the Resource Specialist is to have a <u>remedial</u> or <u>clinical</u> quality rather than merely an <u>enrichment</u> or <u>support service</u> quality. These assumptions provided the guidelines for identifying types of specialists to be considered as well as the selection of specific specialists included in the field study.

<u>Sample Selection</u>

With the three assumptions about their work established, the search for a suitable sample of specialists was initiated. Interviews were conducted with central office staff personnel in eight school districts in Riverside County first to determine which types of school based specialists whose work fit, or closely approximated, the Resource Specialist assumptions, and

secondly to secure the names and work locations of a number of specialists of each type. The district level interviews led to the identification of thirty-seven different specialists representing five general types of specialist. Included were learning disabilities teachers, Miller-Unruh reading teachers, Early Childhood Education reading specialists, speech therapists and a variety of specialists associated with federal and/or state funded projects.

Following the identification of a pool of potential subjects, one-to-two hour tape recorded interviews were conducted with each of the thirty-seven specialists. The first six of these interviews were conducted with a diverse group of specialists employing an unstructured interview technique. This procedure was used to discover the major themes in each of the specialist's work. The information gained in these first six interviews was then employed in the remainder of the initial round of interviews. In addition to providing a preliminary pool of data for the study, the initial thirty-seven interviews provided a means whereby the work situation of each specialist could be more closely assessed to determine if indeed it met the assumptions for selection. Through the interviews the willingness of each specialist to participate further in the study was also assessed.

During the initial set of interviews with specialists, the parameters for selecting the individuals to be included in the final sample began to emerge and were established following these interviews. Selection parameters generally fell into three categories--empirical, theoretical, and practical. Two variables were discovered empirically in the course of the interviews. First, it was discovered that the size of a specialist's case load and the number of teachers with whom the specialist worked closely were probably important work variables which distinguish various specialists and thus the sample should include specialists who have different case load

sizes. Second, the interviews suggested that the work location of specialists (in regular classrooms, in special rooms, or in both) was another variable which should be considered in selecting specialists and that the specialists in the final sample should represent a variety of work locations. From a more theoretical perspective, it seemed important to select specialists who served a broad range of grade levels, who represented different areas of speciality, and who had different degrees of involvement in case load selection. Since the position of Special Education Resource Specialist is proposed to be established at all grade levels, it was therefore deemed important to select the specialists in such a way that all grade levels were included in the sample. Furthermore, since the position of Special Education Resource Specialist, as currently described, calls for the Resource Specialist to be closely involved in case load selection, it seemed important to include specialists in the sample who have varying degrees of participation in case load selection. Finally, because it was important to control as much as possible for personal characteristics of the specialists themselves as well as their speciality, it was important to select specialists who represented similar and different specialties. In other words, by selecting individuals who represented a variety of specialties, work characteristics could be discovered which cut across all teacher-student oriented remedial specialists.

In the interviews with the central office staff, it was learned that most remedial specialists who work with both pupils and teachers are women. Of the thirty-seven individuals initially identified, thirty-two were women and five were men. Although gender did not appear theoretically or empirically to be an important work variable, it did seem reasonable to include at least one male in the sample to provide some comparative data between the work of male and female specialists.

Of the practical considerations in selecting individuals to be included in the final sample, the most important was voluntary praticipation in the study on the part of the specialists. The practical consideration of limited finances as well as research time, dictated that specialists in the final sample work in schools relatively close to the research institution administering the research project.

Two specialists were eliminated from the original pool of thirty-seven because they indicated they would not participate in the observational phase of the study. Another specialist was removed from the pool because her work appeared to be very similar to other specialists who worked considerably closer to the project office. Thus thirty-four specialists remained in the pool of potential subjects. The final selection of specialists was made to obtain a broad variation across speciality, work location, case load size, degree of involvement in case load selection, grade levels served, and gender. Table I provides a list of the specialists included in the study and their respective qualities in each of the selection variables.

Collection of Field Data

Following the establishment the sample of nine specialists, the systematic collection of field data was initiated. The following general procedure was employed. Each member of the sample was scheduled for an initial series of observations. Three to four complete working days (not necessarily consecutive) were scheduled with each specialist at a time when each specialist was engaged in routine work. This is to say, observation of the specialists was avoided when they reported that special school or district events would be interferring with their normal routines. Following this initial series of observations of each specialist, the observations were continued on a more random basis. This is to say, the observer "stopped by," spent several hours observing the specialist, and checked with the specialist to

Table I

Sample of Specialists for Ethnographic Study

No.	Gender	Type of Specialist	Location of Work		Approx. Size of Case Load	Degree of Involvement In Selection of Case Load	Grade Levels Served
			Regular Classrooms	Special Classroom			
1.	F	Learning Disabilities	2/3 time	1/3 time	15	none	3-6
2.	M	Learning Disabilities	special room opening onto two classrooms		9	none	4-5
3.	F	Learning Disabilities		X	15	none	3-6
4.	F	Learning Disabilities		X	12	none	2-6
5.	F	Learning Disabilities		X	15	none	9-12
6.	F	Miller-Unruh Reading Specialist	X		60	high	K-3
7.	F	Early Childhood Education Reading Specialist	X		60	high	K-3
8.	F	Title I Math Specialist		X	variable	high	1-6
9.	F	Combined Project Diagnostic Specialist		X	variable	high	1-3

determine if any important events had transpired since the last observation of if any non-routine activities were expected in the near future. The observations of each specialist were continued until the data became repetitive and the observer felt reasonably certain that continued observation

would not reveal new information. It should be mentioned that, in general, the specialists who were observed first in the observational phase of the study tended to be observed for a greater length of time than those specialists who were observed toward the end of the observational data collection phase. The difference in lengths of observation occurred because thorough study of early participants meant that specialists who were observed in the latter part of the data collection phase tended to produce less in the way of new data and thus the observational time could be reduced.

In two cases, observations were extended and intensified because the work situation of the specialists provided a unique opportunity to follow a particular activity of the specialists. In one case the observations were extended because the specialist was involved in a site level group which was partially responsible for the selection of the students making up the specialist's case load. The meetings of this school site group were followed for several months. In another case, the specialist in the sample was one of five specialists who worked closely together and met regularly to discuss mutual concerns. These meetings were regularly observed for two months.

During the observation of the specialists at work, extensive field notes were recorded. At certain times when it seemed that the direct recording of notes would interfere with the situation being observed, mental notes were taken and recorded as soon as possible.

As the observational phase of the study was drawing to a close, interviews were conducted with principals and selected teachers at the schools in which the specialists worked.

The span of the data collection, beginning with the interviewing of central office staff and ending with the interviews with teachers and principals, spanned a period of seven months. Over sixty people were directly involved in the study and numerous others for example, teachers and

specialists whose work overlapped with the sample of nine specialists, were indirectly included in the study. The field study produced over eight hundred pages of field notes, numerous documents, and thirty-five hours of taped interviews.

II. B. Methods Utilized in the Statistical Probability Study of Role Perceptions

The second study in this research project was concerned with gathering and analyzing statistical survey data about specialist teachers and their work.[42] Four categories of data were obtained from a broad sample of teaching and administrative personnel by means of the questionnaire included as Appendix A of this report.

The first two parts of the questionnaire were designed to elicit data on the demographic characteristics and work assignments for each respondent. The demographic data included: job title, age, sex, degrees held, credentials held, etc. The questions concerning each respondent's work assignment gathered information on: the services which they provided to children, their work location and years of experience, their interaction with other professionals and the like.

Part C of the questionnaire represents a unique effort to gather each respondent's perceptions about the organizational position, work activities, and work approach or orientation of specialist teachers with responsibility for serving children with exceptional needs. In order to gather data which would reflect vivid experience rather than idealistic hopes, each respondent was asked to begin by identifying two specialists with whom they were familiar and then to answer each question in Part C twice--once for each of the two specialists identified. Questions in this section include: the types of specialists being described, their work load characteristics, the

nature of their position, work orientation, relationships with teachers, students, and other professionals, and the way in which they structure the use of their time and attention.

In the final part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to share their perceptions regarding the levels of stress and the basis for decision-making in the work of specialist teachers who work with exceptional children. The seventeen questions in this section were composed so as to measure the stress levels and clinical or non-clinical basis for decision-making across eight of the nine stages in the work flow of special education services (which were described in Section I. C. above). Table II shows how these 17 questions are related to these stress, decision-making, and work flow dimensions.

The specific questions utilized in the final questionnaire evolved from four sources. First, the review of special education literature suggested in broad outline the role definitions under study. Next a series of approximately thirty-five field interviews with administrators, specialists and regular classroom teachers in six school districts was undertaken to determine how well the literature review concepts fit their experiences with special education programs and practices. Thirdly, a continuous interaction with the observations being made in the intensive ethnographic study which was under way during the questionnaire development period contributed significantly to the formation of a number of questions. The questions related to specialist work approaches were particularly recommended from this source. Finally, the questionnaire was pretested twice with small samples of educators and revised substantially after each pretest administration.

Sample Design and Administration

The population from which samples were drawn for administration of the questionnaire consists of those school professionals in the County of River-

Table II

Stress and Basis for Decision Questions Related to Special Education Work Flow Stages

Stage	Stress Questions	Basis for Decision Questions
1. Problem Identification	D.1 In most schools the right types of specialist services are available when needed to meet the needs of exceptional children.	D.2 Observations and testing by specialists tend to confirm what regular teachers already know about the problems and needs of exceptional children.
2. Consultation	D.3 Specialists and regular classroom teachers tend to work together smoothly and cooperatively.	D.4 Specialists make important contributions by helping regular classroom teachers understand children's individual differences and diagnose educational problems.
3. Referal	D.5 Regular teachers tend to feel that referring children to a specialist will be interpreted as a sign that they are not fully competent.	D.6 There are many children who could benefit from specialist assistance so teachers must choose which ones will be referred for help.
4. Assessment/ Certification	D.7 Specialist and regular teachers tend to disagree about which children should be placed in special programs.	D.8 Regardless of the result of psychological testing, the child's classroom performance provides the best information about educational problems.
5. Placement	D.9 Specialist and regular teachers tend to cooperate closely in the planning and development of learning experiences for exceptional children.	D.10 It is important for the school principal to coordinate the activities of specialist and regular teachers as it is related to the scheduling of children into various programs.
6. Planning/ Scheduling work	D.13 Specialists tend to create problems for regular teachers because they do not give adequate attention to matters of classroom organization and control.	D.14 Exceptional children should be assigned to a regular classroom teacher responsible for securing any needed specialized help in their education. D.15 Exceptional children should be assigned to specialist teachers who decide when and where they should be given regular classroom experience.
7. Performance/ Delivery	D.12 Specialist teachers tend to feel that principals do not support their work efforts.	D.11 Specialist teachers tend to feel that school psychologists are devoted too much to diagnosis of problems and too little to developing treatment programs.
8. Progress Evaluation	D.16 Children receiving specialist help achieve significantly higher rates of social and academic progress than would be possible without these services.	D.17 The effectiveness of specialist services depends more on the fact that they can give children concentrated individual attention than on any special knowledge or techniques employed.

side, both in the County offices and within the various districts in the County.

The administrators in the population include those serving in the Special Services Division of the County office, and, those who serve in each of the Riverside County school districts in the administrative line from the superintendent or assistant superintendent to the special education supervisor who has responsibility for oversight of specialist teachers. Additionally, this population also includes school level administrators--that is, the principals and vice principals at elementary, middle, junior high and high school levels.

The specialist population consists of all those specialists who perform remedial and clinical type specialized services. Generally, this includes all specialists attached to the special education, special services, or pupil personnel services administrative structure. It includes also, those specialists who serve at single school sites for the purpose of providing remedial services to children in regular classes, as well as special education teachers who hold self-contained classes within a regular school site. All specialists with the following job titles were included as a minimum from each school district in the sample: educationally handicapped teachers (both the learning disability group teachers and those with self-contained special day classes), Miller-Unruh teachers, resource teachers, reading and/or math specialists, Early Childhood Education and language development specialists, EMR and TMR teachers, bilingual/bicultural and English as a Second Language teachers, speech, speech and hearing, speech therapists or pathologists, psychologists and psychometrists, elementary counselors and Title I coordinators. Some other district specific specialists were included when their work seemed comparable to those listed.

The teacher population consisted of those teachers who serve grades

K-12 in the county. This population consists only of those teachers who hold regular classes and excludes special classes such as art and music; and at the high school level excluded industrial arts, home economics, and crafts classes.

For the districts that chose to participate in the study, a questionnaire was sent to each identifiable central office administrator and specialist (as described above). For teachers and site administrators we employed a stratified cluster sampling design, where schools were selected after they had been separated by district size, school level (elementary, and so on), and by whether the school had categorical funding. From each of the schools selected we randomly selected nine to ten teachers, and the site administrator.

The questionnaires were administered to a sample of 500 teachers, 468 specialists, and 133 administrators in twenty-two district offices and fifty-two schools in the County of Riverside, for a total sample size of 1101 individuals.

The central office personnel and specialists were identified through directories and documents provided by district personnel. Questionnaires sent to those individuals were distributed through the district mail facilities. The site administrator and teacher samples were identified by the principals or through school assignment rosters provided by the principal. The questionnaires for these individuals were carried to the schools in question and given to the respective principals. The questionnaires were returned by mail.

Responses

Of the 1101 questionnaires distributed, 627 or 57% were returned. Of this number 38 were blank, damaged, or obviously incomplete and were not counted as responses. This left 589 responses for analysis. The 589 were

coded and prepared for keypunching. After the data was placed on cards, preliminary processing to prepare a final sample for quantitative analysis was undertaken.

Three steps were taken to prune from the 589 original respondents those cases which were not satisfactory for detailed statistical analysis. First, cases with a large number of blanks, "don't know" or "no opinion" responses were removed. It was decided after an initial screening of the data that an appropriate compromise between maintaining a substantial sample size and keeping the number of non-responses from affecting the findings that no more than two blank or don't know/no opinion responses to questions in Part D of the questionnaire and no more than four such responses to questions in Part C would be accepted. Deleting those with more than the allowable number of non-responses left 306 cases in the data pool.

The second step was to remove from the 306 remaining cases two respondents whose positions were not clearly identifiable as relevant to the study. This left 304 cases.

Third, in order to reduce the serious over-representation of various specialists, it was decided to eliminate from the sample all those specialists who could not be clearly identified as working in one or more of the 52 schools in the sample. One hundred and four specialists were thus removed leaving 200 cases which were then treated as the sample for detailed statistical analysis.

In order to check on the impact of these procedures for identifying the final sample on the characteristics of the pool of 589 cases, a comparison of the demographic characteristics of the final sample and the original response group was made. The first step in this comparison was to group all of the specialist teachers who responded into two broad groups based on the probable character of their work. The first group

contained specialist teachers who characteristically take a remedial approach such as learning disability teachers, reading and math specialists, Title I coordinators, etc. Into the second group were placed school psychologists and psychometrists, speech therapists and pathologists, and the like. A complete listing of the job titled and their classification is presented in Table III.

After these two group were created, the 200-case sample was compared across six of the Part A questions. Table IV presents the raw data for each of these questions. Controlling these answers for the disproportionate loss of specialist types and secondary teachers which resulted during the final sample, there remain no significant differences between the 589 original respondents and the 200 selected for analysis (using a binomial test of changes in proportions).

Once the 200 case sample had been confirmed as representative of the original data pool, two separate actions were taken to complete the preparation of the data for analysis. First, only one of each respondent's responses to Part C of the questionnaire was analyzed. The most complete response was selected if it met two conditions: 1) if it was identifiable as either a clinical or a remedial specialist and 2) if the other response had more than four blanks or non-responses. For all cases where both answers to Part C were adequate, random selection was used to pick the reply for analysis.

Secondly, most non-responses were replaced by the mean score for each question in Parts B, C, and D of the questionnaire. There were three sets of questions where non-responses were replaced by answers other than the mean. These were: 1) in Question C.13 a general level of cooperation was calculated from the average of all the responses given to these four subquestions, 2) in Question C.14 the value of "1" was given to any blank or

Table III

Position Titles Grouped Under the Classification of Remedial and Clinical Specialist

Remedial Specialists	Clinical Specialists
1. Educationally Handicapped	1. Speech
2. Educationally Handicapped-Special Day Class	2. Speech and Hearing
3. Educationally Handicapped-Learning Disability Grouping	3. Speech Therapist
4. Learning Disability Grouping	4. Speech Pathologist
5. Learning Disabilities	5. Speech and Language
6. Miller-Unruh Reading Specialists	6. Psychologist
7. Reading Specialists	7. Psychometrist
8. Reading and Math Specialists	8. Elementary Counselors
9. Resource Teachers	
10. Math Specialists	
11. Early Childhood Education	
12. Language Development	
13. Educational Mentally Retarded	
14. Trainable Mentally Retarded	
15. Orthopedically Handicapped	
16. Visually Handicapped	
17. Aphasic	
18. Severe Oral Learning Handicapped	
19. Bilingual Specialists	
20. Bicultural Specialists	
21. English as a Second Language	
22. Title I Coordinator	

Table IV

Demographic Comparison of 589 Responses to

Survey Questionnaire with 200 Cases Selected for Statistical Analysis

	Group of 589 Responses	Selected Sample of 200 cases
Position Held (Question A.1)		
1. Remedial Type Specialists	211 (36%)	36 (18%)
2. Clinical Type Specialists	70 (12%)	16 (8%)
3. Elementary Teachers	159 (27%)	84 (42%)
4. Secondary Teachers	49 (8%)	11 (6%)
5. School Site Administrators	48 (8%)	34 (17%)
6. Central Office Administrators	31 (5%)	19 (10%)
Credentials Held (Question A.9)		
1. Teaching Credential only	262 (47%)	103 (52%)
2. Teaching and Specialist Credential	190 (34%)	43 (22%)
3. Teaching and Administrative	65 (12%)	19 (10%)
4. Teaching, Specialist & Administrative	41 (7%)	35 (18%)
Education (Question A.10)		
1. No Advanced degrees	224 (39%)	80 (40%)
2. Master's degrees	320 (56%)	106 (53%)
3. Doctoral degrees	26 (5%)	14 (7%)
Sex (Question A.11)		
1. Male	185 (33%)	76 (38%)
2. Female	383 (67%)	124 (62%)
Age (Question A.12)		
Mean Score	3.00 (= 40 yrs)	3.06 (= 40.6 yrs)
Standard Deviation	1.14	1.58

Table IV (Continued)

	Group of 589 Responses	Selected Sample of 200 Cases
Ethnicity (Question A.13)		
1. Asian American	2 (.4%)	0 (0%)
2. Black	26 (5%)	8 (4%)
3. Caucasian	478 (84%)	173 (87%)
4. Mexican-American	18 (3%)	6 (3%)
5. Native American	31 (5%)	8 (4%)
6. Other	12 (2%)	5 (3%)
Supervisory Responsibility (Question A.8)		
1. Yes, including certificated staff	135 (24%)	65 (33%)
2. Yes, limited to aide(s)	175 (31%)	67 (34%)
3. Yes, other classified	9 (2%)	3 (2%)
4. None	251 (44%)	64 (32%)

"don't know" responses on the assumption that if there was not enough evidence of a particular approach for the respondent to identify it then the specialist being described probably had "little or none" of that approach, and 3) in Questions C.15 through C.19 non-responses were given the value of "3" on the assumption that if activities could not be distinguished they were most likely to be evenly balanced.

These actions having been taken we had completed the preparation of the data ready for analysis.

III. MAJOR FINDINGS

Data gathered for this research contains a large number of interesting and important findings. In the statistical sense of the term, there are many more significant findings than can be presented meaningfully in the limited space available for this report. Therefore, beyond descriptive data on the two samples under study, this section presents only those seven major findings which were deemed most important for school policy analysis and formulation. After these seven major findings have been described in this section, brief analysis of their policy significance will be undertaken in Section IV. This will be followed by a series of related recommendations in Section V.

Before turning to the seven major policy findings, however, it will be helpful to sketch out an overall description of the two samples which were studied.

III. A. Descriptive Findings

As was discussed in Section II, data gathered during this research was taken from two separate samples. The first was a theoretically based sample of nine school based specialist teachers whose work is, in important respects, similar to that expected of Resource Specialists under the MPSE. The second was a stratified statistical probability sample of 200 administrative, specialist and regular teaching staff members from the school districts of Riverside County, California. As the next two sub-sections will demonstrate, each of these samples displays characteristics which indicate that the samples were properly drawn and should be considered an important and adequate base upon which to build an analysis of specialized educational services within the public schools.

III. A. 1. The Theoretical Sample of Specialists

Descriptively, the nine specialist teachers in this study sample fall naturally into three distinct groups based on their work patterns, their relations with students and other educators, and their views on the primary objectives of their work. The first two groups consist of four members each, while the third group contains a single individual. This distribution is itself important, since a serious effort was made midway through this study to locate an additional specialist with a work pattern of the third type. The search was frustrated in two ways. First, only two potential candidates for observation could be suggested by central office special education staff members within the study area, indicating that this work style is quite rare. Second, of the two identified subjects, one actually works more in the style described in the first group and the other was, for various reasons, not willing or able to participate in the study. As the discussion below will clarify, the rarity of the third work style is very important because it is this third style which comes closest to the role of definition for the Resource Specialist as conceived by the MPSE. By examining carefully the relationships among the three groupings of specialists it is possible to identify both the possibilities and the problems which confront any effort to establish a stable and effective Resource Specialist program.

The next few pages will be devoted to a straightforward description of each of the three groups of specialist teachers observed during the ethnographic study phase of this research. The three groups are best understood as representing three of the key concepts utilized to describe the background of special education services in Section I. The first group takes a clinical-therapeutic approach; the second and third both take remedial

instruction approaches. Only the third, however, takes what could be appropriately called a normalization approach. Because of their characteristic ways of working, we have labeled the approach of the second group a categorical problem remediation approach.

The Clinical-Therapeutic Specialists

This group of specialists contains four learning disabilities group specialists. As a group these specialists tend to have a very close relationship with their students and a distant, and sometime strained, relationship with the regular teachers with whom their certified students are also assigned. As a group, these specialists tend to be more closely aligned with district special education departments than with their respective school principals. Since the district special education departments select, place, and provide the funds for these specialists' salaries as well as provide a variety of support services for these specialists, the close alignment between these specialists and the district special education departments does not seem unusual.

Learning disabilities specialists typically work with a relatively small number of students for rather extended periods of time and thus the relationships between specialists and students have an opportunity to crystallize. All the specialists in this group have their own classrooms which tends to isolate them from the regular teachers with whom the certified students are also assigned. This isolation and distance between the specialists and teachers is further accentuated by the fact that the specialists frequently feel that regular teachers contribute to the problems of certified students. Teachers, on the other hand, frequently feel that the recommendations the LD specialists offer them regarding instructing and socializing certified students is unrealistic. The fact that

learning disabilities programs typically call for a broad scope of instructional and socialization services for students tends to further enhance the relationships between specialists and students, but at the same time, may tend to increase the distance between the specialists and teachers. In some instances teachers feel these learning disabilities specialists infringe on their domains.

Most of the activities of student oriented LD specialists center around providing intensive individualized instruction and personalized socialization for their certified students. Frequently these specialists employ sophicated and elaborate instructional devices in their instructional work with students. Because this group of specialists works in their own classrooms, they do not have to work to gain access to the rooms of regular teachers. (It should be pointed out here that specialists who work in regular classrooms generally spend considerable effort in getting access to their students. This point will be discussed in more detail in another section.) Furthermore, these specialists do not have to expend time and energy screening students for entry into their programs because district special education departments handle this process.

These clinically oriented learning disabilities specialists tend to schedule students for instruction based on student need. (It should be mentioned that this is not the procedure used by all specialists to distribute their services.) Sometimes this group of LD specialists experience some difficulty in scheduling their certified students for instruction because regular teachers are reluctant to release students. Regular teachers sometimes feel that students miss important instruction if they are released from class at certain times of the day.

Clinically oriented learning disabilities specialists tend to view their programs as a place where students should be able to begin at their

present developmental level academically and socially and then catch up as quickly as possible. Regular teachers frequently feel, on the other hand, that LD programs should assist certified students with their regular assignments or remove them from their regular classes more frequently.

These student oriented learning disabilities specialists tend to gain satisfaction from seeing the fruits of their efforts, that is seeing their students progress. This source of satisfaction tends to engage them further in their instructional and socialization efforts. Since the relationship between clinical specialists and their respective school principals is frequently distant, these specialists tend to communicate with their special education departments when problems occur rather than dealing directly with their school principals. The district special education departments then form the link between the specialist and the school principals which in turn tends to increase the distance between the specialists and school principals.

The Categorical Problem Specialists

This group of four specialists contains a variety of specialists who are associated with categorically funded school based projects. These projects include Title I, Early Childhood Education, and projects which include a variety of mixed funding sources. One Muller-Unruh reading specialist is also included in the group because her work very closely resumbles the work characteristics of specialists associated with projects. As a group these specialists tend to be closely associated with several non-teaching staff members in the school frequently including the school project director and/or the school principals. (One specialist in this group is associated with two teachers; however these teachers are administrative proteges of the principal.) The specialists' relationships with teachers tends to be distant and, in some cases, very strained. Teachers

sometimes seem to resent what they view as the specialists' priviledged status as well as the specialists' freedom and mobility within the school. Categorical specialists, on the other hand, often view teachers as not complying with project requirements and thus putting the status of the project in jeopardy. The relationship between the specialists and students tends to be rather neutral. Project oriented categorical problem specialists tend either to spend very little time with very few students or spend a great deal of time with a great many students. Thus the rate and intensity of contact by the specialists with individual students tends to be very low and close relationships do not tend to develop.

The activities of these specialists tend to revolve around the maintenance and continuance of the project with which they are associated. This does not seem unusual because their positions are integrally tied to the health and longevity of the project. Maintenance activities include such things as working to get the teachers to comply with the project requirements, providing in-service activities, purchasing and cataloging project materials, preparing instructional materials, supervising aides, and supervising student testing. Project continuance activities include such things as preparing for state evaluations, planning project revisions, and heading rewrite teams.

Not all of the activities of the categorical problem specialists are directly focused on project maintenance and continuance; all of the project associated specialists do engage in providing specialized instructional services in some form or another. However, these instructional activities tend to be stylized, routine and narrow in scope. These specialists frequently present the same or very similar lessons to a large number of student groups each day. Furthermore, because the project requirements generally call for the remediation of very specific student skills, the

specialists' instructional activities are finely focused and do not emphasize socialization in any substantial way.

The specialists may provide specialized instruction in special settings; for example "labs" or "centers" or in regular classrooms. Project specialists who work in regular classrooms report that their high visibility among teachers is important in maintaining a good relationship with classroom teachers. In these cases the relationships between the specialist and teachers tends to be on the surface friendly and cordial, however the specialists still view themselves as having a different status from teachers. The data seems to suggest that the relationship between teachers and the categorical problem specialists who do not work in regular classrooms is more strained than the relationships between teachers and those specialists who do work in regular classrooms.

Three of the four project specialists included in the study tend to distribute their services equally among individual teachers who teach certain grade levels rather than on the basis of student need as is the case with the clinically oriented learning disabilities specialists. For example, the reading specialists tend to distribute their time equally among the primary teachers. Within each classroom the categorical problem specialists tend to work with a small group of very low achievers. There tends to be a high degree of agreement regarding the students the regular teachers feel should receive the services of the specialist and the project requirements specifying the category of children who are eligible to receive specialized services. Once the specialist's time has been allocated to teachers, the specialist does not have to spend a large amount of time selecting the students to receive services. Thus the scheduling of services of problem oriented specialists is only a matter of establishing the order of equal time blocks among a group of teachers. The issue of what students and for

what length of time they should receive specialized services tends not to arise for most categorical problem specialists.

One of the specialists in this group distributes her services on the basis of student need rather than on equalizing her services among teachers. This specialist receives referals from teachers, tests referred students in order to diagnose their problems, makes home visits, prepares case histories, and prepares a set of recommendations, including detailed educational prescriptions, concerning what students should receive services. The specialist presents her recommendations to a "staffing" committee for its approval. This site based selection process is very time consuming for the specialist. Fully one-half of her week is spent in selection activities. Since the selection procedures tend to be tedious and routine the specialist does not find this area of her work very compelling. As a matter of fact, the specialist tends to avoid and delay the selection procedures in favor of more attractive areas of her work. Thus the specialist tends to have a shortage of clients to whom to give specialized services.

The personal work goals of categorical problem specialists tend to be for smooth project operation and project continuance. In some cases, project continuance is in part tied to increased student achievement based on broad scale school testing. However, in these cases the project specialists tend to view increased levels of student achievement as an instrumental goal of their work rather than a direct object of their work. Regular teachers, on the other hand, tend to view the work of project based specialists as a means of decreasing heavy work loads and responsibilities for certain student's learning.

Since the categorical problem specialists tend to be highly mobile among the more stationary teachers in the school, the specialists tend to be in a position to know what is going on around the school. This is par-

ticularly true for those specialists who work in regular classrooms. Furthermore, since principal-specialist relationships tend to be close, the specialists tend to be a source of information concerning the work of teachers for principals. Thus the specialists' location in the flow of information tends to aggravate their already strained relationships with teachers while at the same time tightening relationships between the specialists and principals.

Because the rate and intensity of interaction of specialists in this group with students tends to be low, it is difficult for the specialists to recognize the results of their instructional efforts with students. Thus the specialists' work as an instructor does not tend to be a source of satisfaction in their work. Furthermore, their instructional work, in some cases, tends to result in a pessimistic attitude toward the possibilities of student progress. For example, reading specialists in the fall, after school has resumed following summer vacation, tend to be enthusiastic toward the prospects of increased student achievement. But if the students' achievement level does not tend to increase as the school year progresses--as frequently seems to be the case--the specialists become resigned to the fact that the students are not going to make much, if any, progress. Thus specialists in these situations do not derive much satisfaction from their instructional efforts and become pessimistic about the effects of their work and the children involved. Consequently, there is a tendency for these specialists to avoid their instructional work and focus their efforts on project administration and continuance. The major source of satisfaction in the work of categorical problem specialists arises from their joint work on projects with other non-teaching adults in the school.

The Normalization Specialist

This group contains only one individual who is classified as a learning

disabilities specialist. This specialist is not closely aligned with the district Special Education Department which is quite a different situation than exists with the other learning disabilities specialists included in the study. In this case the school principal, because of a personal relationship with senior district office administrative official, is able to reduce the influence of the district Special Education Department on the school-based LD program and to a large extent control the program definition himself.

The specialist in this setting is allowed by her school principal to select the teachers who are to be a part of the LD program. That is, the principal allows the specialist to place the certified students with the teachers she identifies. The specialist has about twelve students assigned to her and she generally places them in the classrooms of a relatively small number of teachers who agree to take LD students. In placing the students, the specialist attempts to match the students and teachers. Thus the relationships between the specialist and the teachers, i.e., those teachers who willingly accept LD students in their classrooms, tends to be very close.

The close relationships between the specialist and the regular teacher is further reinforced by the fact that the specialist spends at least one-half of her time during the school year working in the classrooms of the cooperating teachers. Thus the relationships between the specialist and the cooperating teachers have a chance to develop and crystalize.

The relationship between the specialist and the certified students also tends to be close and personal. This close relationship is nurtured by the fact that the specialist has a relatively few students assigned to her and spends most of her time in the presence of these students. The relationship between the specialist and the school principal is also close when compared to the learning disabilities specialists in the clinically

oriented group. This specialist regards the school principal as her principal in much the same way as the other teachers at the school regard the principal as their principal. She regards her job as important to the effective functioning of the total school program.

A cordial relationship between the specialist and thedistrict special education department exists, however the district Special Education Department does not have a high degree of influence over the specialist's work. The specialist complies with the requirements of the Special Education Department, however in many instances she does not take the requirement very seriously. For example, the specialist complies with the department's student attendance accounting procedure which requires a strict accounting of the time she allocates to each certified student, however the specialist does not report the time she devotes to non-certified students. Furthermore, the specialist complies with the department's request for the submission of detailed prescriptive educational plans but does not use these plans very much in her daily work. She accepts special funds, services, and materials from the district Special Education Department but then tends to distribute these among the regular teachers involved with her program. The specialist does call upon the rules and policies represented by the district Special Education Department to defend herself against the requests of classroom teachers, other than those to whom LD students are assigned, who ask her to give assistance to their students. Thus the specialist uses the Special Education Department when she chooses to and ignores the department other times.

In developing her schedule the specialist tends to allocate her services in two ways. First, the specialist allocates about one-half of her time to teachers based on the number of certified students each assigned to each classroom. The teachers who have more students get more of the

specialist's time. And, secondly, the specialist distributes the balance of her services according to individual student's needs. Thus the specialist gives the impression as she goes about her work that part of the time she is working for the teachers and part of the time she is working for students.

Most of the working day the specialist is involved providing instructional services for students in or outside of regular classrooms. By and large the specialist's work in regular classes focus on assisting LD students understand and complete their regular assignments or assisting the teachers during class projects or during activity periods. When working in her room the LD specialist's work centers on providing supportative instructional services to groups of low achievers who are not necessarily certified students.

The specialist assists the regular teachers in the socialization of certified students in becoming students. While working in classrooms, the specialist helps individual LD students conform to classroom work and social norms by assisting these students understand and complete their regular assignments. The specialist also helps individual certified students outside of their classes prepare for tests and recitation.

The specialist spends about one-half of her time outside regular classes assisting both certified and non-certified students. In scheduling the use of this portion of her time the specialist negotiates with regular teachers concerning which students will be able to receive individual or small group instruction.

The specialist tends to judge her success as a specialist in terms of how accepting the regular teachers are of certified students and how well the students fit into their regular classes. The regular teachers with whom certified students are assigned, tend to judge the success of the specialist

in the same terms.

The specialist's success in integrating the LD students and their teachers tends to be the specialist's source of work satisfaction. Thus the specialist works most vigorously toward this end which, in turn, tends to reinforce her close relationship with her cooperating teachers and the certifiecated students assigned to her.

The school principal as well as the specialist believes that certified students should not appear special and both the principal and the specialist agree that the best way to keep the certified students from appearing special is to keep them in the regular classes as much as possible and assist them with their regular assignments. In this sense this specialist is deeply committed to the normalization of educational programs for exceptional children. This apparently simple policy implies a high degree of integration of the activities of the specialist, teachers, and students. Thus a considerable portion of the specialist's attention is directed toward scheduling, that is toward establishing and maintaining a schedule which specifies where she will work, with whom she will work, and what she will teach. The specialist must monitor school activities on a daily basis and adjust the schedule to account for both anticipated and unanticipated changes in the situations of the cooperating teachers and students.

III. A. 2. Description of the Statistical Survey Sample

Using the preliminary procedures outlined in Section II. B., a stratified random sample of 200 educators from 52 schools in 21 of the 25 districts of Riverside County, California were selected for detailed analysis. In this sub-section an overview of the descriptive characteristics of this sample is presented.[43] Comparative analysis and the policy-relevant findings which emerge from a synthesis of this data with the intensive ethnographic

data presented in the previous section will be presented in the next section.

The sample under analysis consists of representatives of three different school work roles: regular teachers, specialist teachers and administrative personnel. In the sample there are 95 regular classroom teachers, 52 specialists and 53 administrators. Each of these three groups is, in turn, composed of two sub-groups. The administrators consist of building preincipals and vice principals (n = 34) and district central office administrators (n = 19). The teachers can be divided between elementary teachers (n = 84) and those in intermediate and secondary schools (n = 11). Grouping the specialists into two sub-groups was somewhat more difficult, since their job titles were many and diverse. They were, however, divided between those whose training and job characteristics were of a more clinical-therapeutic nature (n = 16) and those whose work is more compensatory, remedial or instructional (n = 36). A complete listing of the job titles used for each of these two groupings is reported in Table III above.

Table V summarizes the demographic and work activity characteristics of the six different sub-groups in the sample. Since the sampling procedures for the specialists, teachers and administrators were different, caution must be used in interpreting the characteristics of the total sample. Within the school population of Riverside County, the administrators make up approximately 6%, remedial and exceptionality specialists approximately 13% and other teaching personnel approximately 81% of the total professional staff. Within the sample, however, administrators constitute 26%, specialists 26%, and teachers 48% of the total. Here the teachers should be weighted by a factor of approximately 7.4:1 and the specialists by a factor of 2.1:1 in order to produce a descriptive

Table V

Sample Descriptive Statistics for

Six Sub-Populations (Unweighted Figures)

	Remedial Specialists n = 36 (%)	Clinical Specialists n = 16 (%)	Elementary Teachers n = 84 (%)	Secondary Teachers n = 11 (%)	School Site Admin. n = 34 (%)	Central Office Admin. n = 19 (%)	Total N = 200 (%)
Sex							
Male	7 (19)	8 (50)	17 (20)	4 (36)	26 (76)	14 (74)	76 (38)
Female	29 (81)	8 (50)	67 (80)	7 (64)	8 (24)	5 (26)	124 (62)
Age (yrs)							
Mean (approx.)	40	37	39	36	46	42	41
Std. Dev. (approx.)	(11)	(12)	(11)	(8)	(7)	(6)	(16)
Ethnicity							
Caucasian	33 (92)	15 (94)	68 (81)	7 (64)	31 (91)	19 (100)	173 (87)
Black	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (8)	1 (9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (4)
Mexican-American	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (4)	1 (9)	2 (6)	0 (0)	6 (4)
Native American	1 (3)	0 (0)	4 (5)	2 (18)	1 (3)	0 (0)	8 (4)
Other	2 (6)	1 (6)	2 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (3)
Experience in Present Position (yrs)							
Mean (approx.)	4.4	4.7	6.6	6.7	5.7	3.0	5.0
Std. Dev. (approx.)	(3.2)	(3.4)	(3.4)	(3.7)	(3.7)	(2.8)	(3.4)

Table V (Continued)

	Remedial Specialists n = 36 (%)	Clinical Specialists n = 16 (%)	Elementary Teachers n = 84 (%)	Secondary Teachers n = 11 (%)	School Site Admin. n = 34 (%)	Central Office Admin. n = 19 (%)	Total N = 200 (%)
Work Location							
District Office	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	17 (89)	17(9)
Single School	33 (92)	4 (25)	83 (99)	11 (100)	34 (100)	1 (5)	166(83)
More than one School	3 (8)	12 (75)	1 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5)	17(9)
Education							
No Advanced Degree	14 (39)	2 (13)	55 (65)	5 (45)	4 (12)	7 (37)	87(44)
Masters Degree	22 (61)	13 (81)	29 (35)	6 (55)	23 (68)	6 (32)	99(50)
Doctorate	0 (0)	1 (6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (21)	6 (32)	14(7)
Credentials							
Teaching Credential only	13 (36)	1 (6)	77 (92)	10 (91)	0 (0)	2 (11)	103(52)
Teaching & Specialist	20 (56)	12 (75)	5 (6)	0 (0)	2 (6)	4 (21)	43(22)
Teaching & Administrative	1 (3)	0 (0)	2 (2)	1 (9)	25 (74)	6 (32)	35(18)
Teaching & Admin. & Spec.	2 (6)	3 (19)	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (21)	7 (37)	19(10)
Supervisory Responsibility							
Yes, including cert.	3 (8)	2 (13)	5 (6)	2 (18)	34 (100)	19 (100)	65*(33)
Yes, limited to aides	16 (44)	2 (13)	48 (58)	1 (9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	67(34)
Yes, other classified	0 (0)	1 (6)	2 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3(2)
None	17 (47)	11 (69)	28 (34)	8 (73)	0 (0)	0 (0)	64(32)

* N = 199 for this response; one elementary teacher did not respond to this question.

Table V (Continued)

	Remedial Specialists n = 36 (%)	Clinical Specialists n = 16 (%)	Elementary Teachers n = 84 (%)	Secondary Teachers n = 11 (%)	School Site Admin. n = 34 (%)	Central Office Admin. n = 19 (%)	Total N = 200 (%)
Primary Work Focus							
Other Professionals	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)	0 (0)	27 (79)	16 (84)	45 (23)
Regular Classes	3 (8)	0 (0)	64 (76)	8 (73)	1 (3)	0 (0)	76 (38)
Selected Students	20 (56)	10 (63)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3)	0 (0)	31 (16)
Prof. & Regular Classes	1 (3)	1 (6)	14 (17)	1 (9)	3 (9)	0 (0)	20 (10)
Prof. & Selected Students	5 (14)	4 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (6)	3 (16)	14 (7)
Reg. Classes & Sel. Students	3 (8)	1 (6)	5 (6)	2 (18)	0 (0)	0 (0)	11 (6)
Other	3 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (2)
Contact with Other Professionals	(Mean/(Std. Dev.))	(1 = Daily; 5 = Never)					
Regular Teachers	1.86 (1.25)	1.50 (.82)	1.67 (1.06)	1.64 (1.12)	1.15 (.44)	2.74 (1.24)	1.7/(1.1)
Principals	2.39 (1.25)	2.13 (1.31)	2.50 (1.28)	2.45 (1.13)	2.03 (1.09)	1.53 (.51)	2.3/(1.2)
Psychologists	3.50 (.74)	2.69 (1.25)	4.00 (.58)	4.46 (.82)	3.12 (.81)	2.74 (1.56)	3.6 (1.0)
Exceptionality Specialists	3.08 (1.23)	2.25 (1.07)	3.63 (.95)	4.27 (.79)	2.50 (1.11)	3.21 (1.44)	3.2 (1.2)
Enrichment Specialists	4.61 (.60)	4.44 (.81)	3.94 (.92)	4.36 (.92)	3.85 (.89)	4.21 (.71)	4.1 (.88)
Emergency Specialists	3.72 (1.00)	2.50 (1.03)	3.95 (.93)	4.46 (.82)	3.27 (.99)	3.32 (1.29)	3.6 (1.1)
Work Activity Emphasis							
Work entirely with Professionals	1 (3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	14 (41)	13 (68)	28 (14)
Work entirely with Reg. Classes	4 (11)	0 (0)	64 (76)	7 (64)	2 (6)	0 (0)	77 (39)
Work w/sm. groups or individuals	31 (86)	16 (100)	20 (24)	4 (36)	18 (53)	6 (32)	95 (48)

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Table V (Continued)

	Remedial Specialists n = 36	Clinical Specialists n = 16	Elementary Teachers n = 84	Secondary Teachers n = 11	School Site Admin. n = 34	Central Office Admin. n = 19	Total N = 200
Balance of Activities with Other Professionals: Mean (Std. Dev.)							
(- = More Activity A; + = More Activity B; 0 = About equal emphasis)							
A. Planning (or) B. Implementing	+.56 (1.08)	+.56 (.89)	0.0 (1.11)	-.18 (1.17)	+.03 (.94)	-.68 (.89)	

representation of the Riverside County school population. For comparisons between sub-populations, however, the use of unweighted sample scores is a more conservative approach, minimixing the possibility that bias might be responsible for statistical differences between groups. Therefore unweighted scores have been used throughout this report unless otherwise noted.

Typical Responses.--A perusal of Table V reveals that the typical respondent in this survey was:

a) A caucasian female approximately 40 years of age teaching in an elementary school. Typically the respondent has spent 3 to 6 years in her present position.

Tradition sex and ethnic biases are evident in this sample in that the administrators, secondary teachers and clinical specialists (all jobs of higher status and generally with higher salaries) contain the overwhelming majority of the males and very few of the ethnic minority respondents. The chi-squared test for relationship between sex and role yields a value of 49.13 ($df = 5$; $p < .001$) on the raw data. While that of ethnicity does not reach the .05 level of significance on the unweighted data because of the very small number of non-caucasians in the sample, using weighted values $X^2 = 37.08$ ($df = 5$, $p < .001$) indicating that in the total population ethnic minority respondents are more likely to be teachers, and elementary teachers at that.

b) The typical respondent had a master's degree, except for elementary teachers who tended not to have advanced degrees. All but one of the 14 doctorates was held by an administrator.

As expected, education is related to advancement in the school. Specialist teachers are definitely more highly educated than non-specialists,

and administrators still more highly so. (X^2 for education by roles = 69.59; df = 10; $p < .001$.)

c) The typical teacher in the sample was quite likely to have supervisory responsibilities.

Both remedial specialists and non-specialist elementary teachers reported very high rates of responsibility for supervision of aides and/or certificated professionals. Sixty-two percent of all respondents in these two groups had supervisory responsibility. This finding is quite surprising in its magnitude, and indicates that the literature on school organization is now badly out of date. Even the widely heralded new book on school teaching by Dan Lortie leaves the unmistakeable impression that teaching is predominately a matter of non-specialized teachers working alone in a classroom.[44] With at least 13% of the professional teaching staff working as specialists in various exceptionalities, and more than half of all teachers having supervisory responsibility for at least one aide, there is good reason to suspect that most if not all previous research on the social processes of the classroom are now more misleading than helpful.

d) Typically the respondents have regular contact with principals and non-specialist teachers. Dispite their relatively large numbers, however, there tends to be much less contact with specialist teachers.

There is, on the average, more than a full point on the five point scale of frequency of contact with other professionals between the rates of contact with regular teachers and principals and contact with any of the specialists serving the schools. Specialists dealing with exceptional needs are encountered more frequently than other types of specialists, probably indicating their larger number in the contemporary school system. One intriguing and potentially troublesome finding in this area is that remedial

specialists report encountering enrichment specialists (e.g., music, art, etc.) less frequently than any other group in the sample. Are the schools perhaps neglecting enrichment programs for exceptional children? This study presents no specific data on this question; it would bear further scrutiny in the interest of equal educational opportunity.

e) Respondents confirm initial assumptions about the differences in work spaces, focus of work effort, and mix of work activities.

Regular teachers overwhelmingly see themselves as focusing on regular classes, with some teachers saying that this emphasis is joined to their work with other professionals or small groups of selected students. Specialists of all types most frequently indicate a focus on work with selected students and administrators clearly are focused on work with other professionals. The responses to Question A.7 (on work space) confirms this emphasis.

Perceptions of Specialists.--Responses to the questions regarding perceptions of the work of specialist teachers who work with exceptional children are summarized in Table VI. As that table reveals, there were 100 descriptions of specialists who could be clearly identified as fitting the remedial group and 100 whose job titles fell within the clinical group when the random selection of completed answers to Part C was made. Although multivariate analysis demonstrates that the six different sub-groups in our sample hold significantly different ideas about how these specialists do their work, it also shows that even after controlling for the differences between specialist, teacher, and administrator differences, there remains a very significant difference between the overall perception of these two groups of specialist teachers. A detailed examination of the multiple analysis of variance approach will be discussed in the next sub-section of this report. At this point, however, it will be helpful to examine the overall characterization

Table VI

Perceptions of Remedial and Clinical Specialists and Their Work Activities

	Remedial Specialists n = 100	Clinical Specialists n = 100	Sample Std. Dev.
Work Locations			
Proportion in more than one school	5%	67%	
Work Load			
Number of children served weekly:			
Under 10	13	8	
10 - 20	51	16	
21 - 30	13	15	
31 - 40	5	39	
Over 40	18	22	
	Mean = 26.4 (Approx.Yrs.)	Mean = 35.1 (Approx.Yrs.)	(13.3)
Number of regular teachers worked with			
None	19	10	
1 or 2	9	6	
3 or 4	23	8	
5 or 6	10	31	
7 or more	39	45	
	Mean = 4.32 (Approx.Yrs.)	Mean = 5.40 (Approx.Yrs.)	(2.9)
Proportion with children transported to program location	32%	5%	
Proportion with non-instructural duties similar to regular classroom teachers	64%	17%	
Grade level served:			
Elementary (K-6)	62 %	77%	
Intermediate (7-8 or 9)	13	2	
High School (9 or 10-12)	12	1	
All secondary levels	7	2	
All levels	9	17	
Others	2	1	
Use of Time*			
Work with individual child	3.77	4.08	(1.12)
Work with small groups	3.99	3.34	(1.28)
Work in regular classrooms	1.77	1.46	(1.05)
Work in special rooms	3.59	4.27	(1.47)
Control Over Clients*			
Choose students to work with	3.37	4.30	(1.26)
Choose teachers to work with	3.08	2.56	(1.58)
Average difficulty in getting cooperation with all groups	2.02	1.67	(.81)

Table VI (Continued)

	Remedial Specialists n = 100	Clinical Specialists n = 100	Sample (s.d.)
Work Approach*			
Like regular classroom teacher	3.10	2.48	(1.42)
Like an administrator/supervisor	2.17	1.81	(1.23)
Like a psychological/medical specialist	2.69	2.87	(1.51)
Like an instructional assistant/aide	1.84)	1.45	(1.17)
Activity Balance**			
A. Help teachers, or B. Work with students	+1.17	+1.31	(1.07)
A. Diagnosis/testing students, or B. Instruction/treatment of students	+ .67	+ .19	(1.22)
A. Consult/talk with teachers, or B. Do demonstrations for teachers	-1.09	-1.20	(.99)
A. Try to bring child up to grade level, or B. Promote individual growth and development	+ .47	+ .90	(1.13)
A. Do things teachers do not have time or opportunity to do, or B. Do things teachers don't know how to do	- .19	+ .27	(1.37)

* 1 = little or none; 5 = a great deal.

** -2 = mostly activity A; 0 = about equally; +2 = mostly activity B.

of specialized teachers as they are perceived by the six sub-groups in our sample.

A perusal of Table VI leads to the following generalizations about perceptions of specialized teachers and their work:

a) Remedial specialists are much more likely to work at a single school, have children transported to their program locations and have duties similar to non-specialist teachers.

Clearly specialists of the remedial type are less separated from the typical teaching role than are clinical specialists. Such an observation is furhter supported by the fact that:

b) Remedial specialists are less likely to work with individual or small groups of students and more likely to work in regular classrooms than clinical specialists.

The fact that the remedial type specialists are closer in work activities to regular classroom teachers, however, should not obscure the fact that they do differ quite substantially from the typical non-specialist teacher. When describing their own work activities remedial specialists are much more likely than are regular teachers to be working in classrooms used for "special purposes, e.g., learning centers, LD, gifted classrooms, etc.", and they overwhelmingly report that they do "primarily specialized work with selected small groups or individual students" in response to Question B.1, "Which of the following best characterizes the focus of your work assignment?". Non-specialist teachers said with even greater regularity that they worked "primarily with regular class(es) of students" (see Table).

c) Remedial specialists are most often thought to approach their work "like a regular classroom teacher", while clinical specialists are perceived to use an approach more

"like a psychological or medical specialist".

In this regard, it is interesting to note that the remedial specialists are also thought to approach their work more like supervisors, administrators and/or instructional aides than are clinical specialists, and the extent to which remedial specialists approach the psychological/medical specialist approach is not significantly less than that for clinical specialists. Hence it is safe to conclude both that it is easier for respondents in this sample to give some characterization to the work of remedial specialists, and also that there is more diversity in judgment about what kind of approach is taken. This point will be discussed more fully in the next sections of this report.

d) All of the specialists are perceived to help students more than teachers; to provide more instructional or treatment services than observation and testing types of services, to work more toward child development than bringing the child up to grade level.

Although there are differences between the specialist types on these points to be discussed later, it is important to realize that when the relative emphasis on these activities is being discussed there remains a common perception that specialist teachers of all types are engaged in providing student developmental services. In providing these services, however, it is believed that:

e) Remedial specialists tend somewhat to provide services which regular teachers do not have enough time or opportunity to provide, while clinical specialists tend more to emphasize services regular teachers do not know how to perform.

These differences are not large, but they do confirm that clinical specialists seem to be more technically specialized and therapeutically oriented.

f) All specialized teachers appear to have some control over which students and which teachers they will work with.

Clinical specialists have more control in choosing students, while remedial specialists, who work more closely with regular teachers, have greater influence in picking the teachers they will work with.

g) Remedial specialists appear to have fewer students and fewer teachers to work with at any given time.

There is also greater variability in the remedial specialists work load. Remedial specialists are reported to have a median work load of between 10 and 20 students and 3 or 4 teachers to work with during a typical week. Clinical specialists, however, are reported to have a median student load of 31 to 40, and at least 5 or 6 teachers to work with during their typical week.

Stress and Decision Basis.--Table VII presents the unweighted mean scores for the total sample on the questions in Part D. The most important conclusions to be drawn from the responses to these questions are presented in the next section of this report. At this point, two observations on the data presented in Table VII are appropriate.

a) The perceptions of the relative importance of clinical or institutional grounds for decision-making are about evenly divided, with institutional bases being slightly preferred.

Questions D.2, D.6, D.8, D.10, D.11, D.14, and D.17 presented the respondents with statements which imply that the proper rationale for decisions in special education should be based on institutional grounds. The key phrases in this regard are, "confirm what teachers already know", "teachers must choose [students]", "classroom performance provides the best information", "principal to coordinate", "psychologists devoted too much to diagnosis", "children should be assigned to regular classroom teacher", and

Table VII

	Question	Mean	(Std. Dev.)
D.1	In most schools the right types of specialist services are available when needed to meet the needs of exceptional children.	2.92	(.99)
D.2	Observation and testing by specialists tend to confirm what regular teachers already know about the problems and needs of exceptional children.	3.80	(.75)
D.3	Specialists and regular classroom teachers tend to work together smoothly and cooperatively.	3.82	(.87)
D.4	Specialists make important contributions by helping regular classroom teachers understand children's individual differences and diagnose educational problems.	3.63	(.98)
D.5	Regular teachers tend to feel that referring children to a specialist will be interpreted as a sign that they are not fully competent.	1.73	(.90)
D.6	There are many children who could benefit from specialist assistance so teachers must choose which ones will be referred for help.	3.83	(1.02)
D.7	Specialist and regular teachers tend to disagree about which children should be placed in special programs.	2.17	(.89)
D.8.	Regardless of the result of psychological testing, the child's classroom performance provides the best information about educational problems.	3.36	(.94)
D.9	Specialist and regular teachers tend to cooperate closely in the planning and development of learning experiences for exceptional children.	3.11	(1.08)

*N = 200

Table VII (Continued

Question	Mean	(Std. Dev.)
D.10 It is important for the school principal to coordinate the activities of specialist and regular teachers as it is related to the scheduling of children into various programs.	3.74	(1.26)
D.11 Specialist teachers tend to feel that school psychologists are devoted too much to diagnosis of problems and too little to developing treatment programs.	3.55	(1.02)
D.[illegible] Specialist teachers tend to feel that principals do not support their work efforts.	2.19	(1.04)
D.13 Specialists tend to create problems for regular teachers because they do not give adequate attention to matters of lcassroom organization and control	1.99	(.99)
D.14 Exceptional children should be assigned to a regular classroom teacher responsible for securing any needed specialized help in their education.	2.81	(1.26)
D.15 Exceptional children should be assigned to specialist teachers who decide when and where they should be given regular classroom experiences.	3.50	(1.12)
D.16 Children receiving specialist help achieve significantly higher rates of social and academic progress than would be possible without these services.	3.9[illegible]	(.92)
D.17 The effectiveness of specialist services depends more on the fact that they can give children concentrated individual attention than on any special knowledge or techniques employed.	3.36	(1.03)

"effectiveness of specialist services depends more on....concentrated individual attention". Questions D.4 and D.15 emphasize a clinical therapeutic basis for decisions, using the key phrases "helping regular classroom teachers understand" and "children should be assigned to specialist teachers". By reversing the scoring on D.4 and D.15, the overall mean score on the decision-basis questions is found to be: 3.26 on the nine questions. This is somewhat above the midpoint on the 1 to 5 scale provided in the questionnaire. This indicates an overall preference for institutional rather than clinical bases for decision within the sample.

b) On the whole, stress in the delivery of specialized services to exceptional children is experienced "only occasionally" by the respondents in this sample.

Questions D.1, D.3, D.9 and D.16 presented statements about the existence of stress or tension in the operation of special education in an affirmative form. That is the greater agreement that these statements are always true indicates low stress. Questions D.5, D.7, D.12 and D.13 present stress perception statements which are worded in the negative fashion so that agreement indicates high stress. Reversing the scoring on the first four questions gives an overall stress mean score of 2.29 indicating that stress is encountered "only occasionally" in the relationships between specialist and non-specialist personnel. The distribution of this stress is, however, far from homogeneous across the sub-groups in the sample, as will be discussed in the following section.

III. B. Seven Policy Relevant Findings

Much has been written recently about the relationship between social science and public policy formation.[45] It is not our purpose to review or extend this literature, but this report has made the commitment to present

the findings of this research project in a manner which will be most directly useful in policy discussions regarding the development and utilization of specialized teaching roles within the public schools. In order to be policy relevant--in our view--the research findings have to reach beyond the description of separate facts concerning specialized teachers and try to paint a complete and coherent picture of how the school system works when specialists are involved in it, why it works that way, and how its workings might be affected.

With this interest in the larger, policy-making perspective in mind, we turn now to the presentation of seven major findings which will lay the foundations for the policy recommendations to be presented in the concluding section of this report. These seven findings are based upon both the descriptive and comprehensive data gathered in the ethnographic study and the statistically testable extensive data gathered through the survey approach. The two findings based largely on the ethnographic data have been, in so far as possible, tested against other possible explanations in the survey data, just as the five findings drawn largely from that data have been tested to be sure they are not contradicted in the rich data of the intensive study. The principal tool for the multivariate statistical data analysis which supports these findings has been the program called "Multivariance" developed by Jeremy Finn.[46]

Finding #1: The most important feature of specialized teaching roles is their tremendous variety; the control of this variety seems to be closely associated with the development by the specialist teacher of what might best be called a Primary Work Group.

The data of the ethnographic study of nine specialist teachers leaves the unmistakable impression that school-based specialist teachers structure

their work so that it is compatible with those whom they feel constitute their most immediate and important working colleagues. In order to understand how each specialist sets about to perform her/his work it is necessary to determine whom that specialist considers to be part of their immediately relevant co-workers. In the literature on group sociology it is customary to distinguish between what are called "primary groups" and "secondary groups". The first are distinguished by high levels of friendship or emotional involvement and a low sense of instrumental purpose, while the opposite is true for the secondary group. Hence, work groups or professional societies are generally thought of as secondary, instrumental groups while families and friendship groups are primary. This widespread distinction seems to be quite inappropriate when analyzing the specialists under study in this project. There is, in each specialist's working environment, a clear distinction to be found between those whom the specialist works "with" and those whom he/she works "on", "around", "for" or merely "along side of". The choice of a primary work group identity appears, by and large, to be something which the specialist controls. Some specialists identify with the classroom teachers whom they encounter in their work, a larger number identify with other specialists, and perhaps most frequently, the same specialists identify with the district-wide special education department on whose behalf the specialist is working "on" or "around" school site personnel.

There are six broad areas in which specialist work activities tend to vary in accordance with their primary work group relationships. The variations encountered in this study can best be organized under the following broad headings: 1) work orientation, 2) time allocation, 3) work space usage, 4) materials utilization, 5) decision authority, and 6) work stress or enthusiasm.

Work Orientation.--Specialists' work orientations vary in at least three important respects. First, the specialists may take a "clinical" or a "remedial" attitude toward the problems of exceptional children. Secondly, the specialists orient toward regular classroom teachers and others as either part of the primary work group, as clients to be transformed, or as irrelevant to their work. And thirdly, specialists vary in regard to whether they work with marginally successful students who could be expected, with the support of some specialist help, to perform adequately in school or whether primary attention is given to those students whose problems are most severe and whose performance in school is most inadequate. The specialist teachers vary their work patterns in ways which enable them to pursue the implications of these different orientations.

Time Allocation.--Perhaps the most illuminating picture of the differences among specialists is presented by asking how they utilize their time differently. Specialists devide their time between treatment or instruction and testing or observation; they divide their time between teachers and students; they divide their time between individual relationships, small group activities, and regular classroom activities. The specialists may spend short (15 to 20 minute) periods with their students or they may spend longer periods up to a full day with their student-clients. Specialist teachers may spend little or much time interacting with other professionals including central office staff, psychologists, principals, other specialists and non-specialist teachers.

Work Space.--The work spaces utilized by specialist teachers varies not only in type but also in location. Specialists may have regular classrooms of their own, special laboratories or centers, or they may work in an office, or "whatever space is not in use at the moment". Special programs may be assigned to special or temporary buildings--sometimes located

well away from regular classroom activities--or they may be located near the school office, staff workroom, or other centers of professional activity.

Materials.--Specialist teachers vary in their use of special materials. Not only is there a wide variation in the extent to which expensive hardware and special packaged curricular materials are found in the workspaces utilized by the specialists, there are also important variations in the extent to which specialists utilize these materials in their instructional activities. Some specialists find the specialized materials absolutely indispensible, others feel that "it is really best if you make up your own instructional aids to suit the problem of each student".

Authority.--Specialists differ greatly in the extent to which they possess either formal or informal authority for deciding which students and/or which teachers they will work with most extensively. Only a few specialist teachers control the assignment of children to their special programs; more have a great deal of influence over which regular classroom teachers will have certified special program students in their classrooms, and which classroom each particular certified exceptional child will be placed in, if the child is to have both mainstream and special program instruction.

Stress.--Finally, specialists vary greatly in the levels of stress experienced in their relationships with other teachers and administrative personnel. They also vary considerably in the enthusiasm which they have for various aspects of their jobs. These variations in excitement or stress related to the job performance has much to do with the ways in which the specialists emphasize some rather than other aspects of the work.

On the basis of the ethnographic study, and supported by findings from the survey study to be presented below, the control of the variations in each specialist's work activities appears to result from the following

sequence of events. First, as a result of training, personal commitment, natural inclination and/or response to initial perception of their role definition of a specialist teacher, each specialist takes up an initial work orientation, including a belief about the priorities in meeting student needs and an attitude toward the non-specialist teacher's skills and/or interest in serving these needs. Next, the specialist teacher tries to establish strong ties with co-workers who are thought to have similar orientations. In this effort, initial orientations are modified or reinforced, since similarity of work orientation is one of the essential ingredients in creating primary work groups. Third, decisions about which children are to be served and in what ways begin to be made. The specialist finds that authority for these decisions rests formally and informally with a variety of people. To the extent that her/his work orientation calls for influence on these decisions there is a movement toward those who have authority and away from those who do not--with the needed re-adjustment of orientation and primary work group identification. Finally, the specialist begins to render the services called for by the role definition adopted. To do so space, time and materials are organized and utilized. In the process, of course, the specialist encounters various limitations on the available space, time and materials, and uses her/his influence with primary work group members to optimize the needed ingredients. Doing so, the specialist discovers that the social system creates obligations to those who accommodate the specialist's needs and that these obligations must be "paid off" by helping other members of the primary work group with the resources needed to meet their goals. If these obligations are large or sharply at odds with the original orientation taken toward the work, the specialist is required to either give up part of the work goals, re-orient the other members of the primary work group, or live with a fairly high level of stress and tension.

Finding #2: Multiple discriminant analysis of the basis for decision-making views held by the six role groupings in the survey sample reveals that there are three distinct approaches to this important problem within the schools studied.

As presented in Table VIII, eight of the nine basis for decision questions have significant standardized discriminant function scores on one or more of the three independently significant orthogonal discriminant functions which arise when the six role sub-groups (i.e., remedial specialists, clinical specialists, elementary teachers, secondary teachers, school site administrators and central office administrators) are used as the independent criterion factor.

Substantive Interpretation.--Substantively, each of the three discriminant functions have significant theoretical meaning. For the first discriminant function (which provides the best separation between the groups) the largest contribution is negative and is provided by Question D.17 which asserts that the effectiveness of specialist services depends more on concentrated attention than on any special knowledge or techniques. Hence a positive discriminant score would tend to mean an individual believed that specialist success required special techniques. Other important contributors to this function are D.2, D.8 and D.15 all with negative coefficients and D.4 with a positive coefficient. These questions show that a positive score on this discriminant function results when a person tends to believe 1) that testing provides better information than classroom observation and teacher's prior judgments, 2) that specialists are genuinely helpful to regular classroom teachers in understanding individual differences, and 3) that children should not be assigned to specialists for program planning purposes. In other words, a high score on this function would indicate that a person held a clinical orientation toward expectional children and that they

Table VIII

An Analysis to Discriminate Six Role Types

Using Grounds for Decision Variables

	Question	Standard Scores Function 1	Standard Scores Function 2	Standard Scores Function 3
D.2	Observation and testing by specialists tend to confirm what regular teachers already know about the problems and needs of exceptional children.	-.3905*	.1529	.2703
D.4	Specialists make important contributions by helping regular classroom teachers understand children's individual differences and diagnose educational problems.	.3693*	-.1934	.0201
D.6	There are many children who could benefit from specialist assistance so teachers must choose which ones will be referred for help.	-.1221	-.4084*	-.0814
D.8	Regardless of the results of psychological testing, the child's classroom performance provides the best information about educational problems.	-.3443*	-.5876*	-.2995
D.10	It is important for the school principal to coordinate the activities of specialist and regular teachers as it is related to the scheduling of children into programs.	.0788	.6099**	-.6596*
D.11	Specialist teachers tend to feel that school psychologists are devoted too much to diagnosis of problems and too little to developing treatment programs.	-.1670	-.1867	-.4249
D.15	Exceptional children should be assigned to specialist teachers who decide when and where they should be given regular classroom experiences.	-.3775*	.3523*	.6792**
D.17	The effectiveness of specialist services depends more on the fact that they can give children concentrated individual attention than on any special knowledge or techniques employed.	-.5175**	.3877*	-.0778

**The largest coefficient.

*Large coefficients; i.e., at least one-half the largest coefficient.

Table VIII (Continued)

	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Roy's Criterion	.2767	.1374	.1181
M =	1.0	1.5	2.0
N =	92.5	92.0	91.5
S =	5.0	4.0	3.0
p	$<.01$	$<.05$	$\doteq.05$

Discriminant Function Centroids for the
Three Discriminant Functions for the Six Role Types

Role Type	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Remedial Specialists	-.226	-.664	.084
Clinical Specialists	1.145	.019	.924
Elementary Teachers	-.739	-.282	.174
Secondary Teachers	-.509	.824	.114
Site Administrators	-.469	.360	-.104
Central Office Administrators	.800	-.256	-.737

thought that specialists should take a consulting approach toward teachers rather than directly managing the exceptional students' education.

The second discriminant function is orthogonal to the first and hence independently accounts for differences between the various role groups in the sample. The largest coefficient for this function is provided by Question D.10 which asserts the importance of the school principal in coordinat-

ing the scheduling of special education services. The other important questions in this function are D.8 and D.6 whose coefficients are negative, and D.15 and D.17 with positive coefficients. These questions suggest that a high score on this function is a result of holding to the views that: 1) testing provides better information than classroom performance, 2) regular teachers should not choose the children for special services but rather the exceptional children should be assigned to the specialists who should plan their programs, and 3) specialist effectiveness depends on the concentration of attention not on specialized knowledge or techniques. High scores on this function defines a remedial orientation toward special education and indicates that one takes a special program approach toward the delivery of those services. That is, this function follows the lines of the categorical problem approach to remedial services identified by the ethnographic study.

The third significant discriminant function is most strongly influenced by Question D.15 which asserts that exceptional children should be assigned to the specialist teachers who would decide when to expose them to regular classroom experiences. Also associated with high scores on this function are the views that 1) the principal should not take a strong hand in coordinating the services of the specialist teachers, and 2) psychologists are not too much devoted to diagnosis and too little to treatment of exceptional needs. On this third discriminant function, we find what could be described as a distinct case work approach taken by the respondents toward exceptional children. In direct accord with our original theoretical formulation of the Resource Specialist role definition, this function distinguishes a working approach to exceptional children which does not distinguish between clinical and remedial orientations to exceptional problems, but rather focuses attention on the direct relationship between the child

and the specialist, with the other professional educators clearly expected to take their clues from the specialist. While policy makers should take note that there is a commitment to the case work approach among school professionals, they should be equally mindful that this orientation is by far the weakest of the three to be found.

Identification of Orientation Holders.--The discriminant function centroids shown on Table VIII indicate the tendency of each of the sub-populations in the sample to hold the various views on the basis for decision-making just described. As can be seen from these centroids, the clinical specialists hold most strongly to both the clinical-consultation and the case work views. The central office administrators (including special education department heads) share with the clinical specialists a commitment to the clinical-consultation bases for special education, while rejecting most strongly the case work approach. All of the groups located at the school sites reject the clinical-consultation approach, especially the non-specialist teachers. The secondary teachers and principals seek remedial programs, but remedial specialists and elementary teachers do not. None of the site-based personnel seem to be strongly involved in the argument between the clinical specialists and central office administrators over the case work approach. Teaching personnel of all types, however, tend to identify with that approach; while administrators do not.

Finding #3: Five of the Part D questions intended to probe levels of stress show that there are significant differences between the important sub-groups sampled with regard their patterns and levels of stress.

The best overall picture is, once again, presented by means of a multiple discriminant function. As shown in Table IX, there is one independently significant multiple discriminant function which best describes

Table IX

Discriminant Function on Perceptions

of Stress by Six Role Types

Question	Discriminant Function Standard Coefficients
D.1 In most schools the right types of specialist services are available when needed to meet the needs of exceptional children.	.80**
D.3 Specialists and regular classroom teachers tend to work togehter smoothly and cooperatively.	-.22
D.5 Regular teachers tend to feel that referring children to a specialist will be interpreted as a sign that they are not fully competent.	.66*
D.12 Specialist teachers tend to feel that principals do not support their work efforts.	.31
D.13 Specialists tend to create problems for regular teachers because they do not give adequate attention to matters of classroom organization and control.	-.01

**The largest coefficient
*Large coefficient; at least one-half of largest)

Roy's Criterion	.2106
M =	-.5
N =	94.0
S =	5.0
p	.01

Discriminant Function Centroids for Perceptions

of Stress by Six Role Types

Role Type	Centroid
Remedial Specialist	-.32
Clinical Specialist	.87
Elementary Teacher	-.66
Secondary Teacher	-.18
Site Administrator	-.39
Central Office Administrator	.69

the separation between the six role types in the sample. The two dominant standardized function coefficients are for Questions D.1 and D.5. The first question tests whether respondents believe the right types of specialists are available; the second tests whether teachers worry about their referrals to specialists. A high score on this discriminant function, therefore, indicates a belief that the right types of specialists are available, but teachers are afraid to utilize their services, while a low score indicates that the problem is that there are not the needed services and thus they are unusable. Predictably, the clinical specialists and the central office administrators who must organize the special education programs attribute stress to teacher fears, while teachers and principals attribute it to inadequate services. It is important to note in this regard that the remedial specialists tend to agree with the non-specialist teachers. Perhaps some teachers are afraid to call in psychological services, but as the ethnographic data tends to confirm, the larger source of tension springs from teachers finding clinical specialists oriented toward a way of working which is foreign to their classroom environments.

Finding #4: A two way analysis of variance, reveals important differences in the perceptions of various role groups about how specialist teachers divide their time and attention.

As presented in Table X, there is one uniquely significant multiple discriminant function which distinguishes the six role types in the sample with regard to their views on how specialists spend their time and attention. The largest coefficient belongs to Question C.19 which tests whether the specialist more often does things non-specialists don't know how to do, or more often does what they don't have time to do. A high score on this function indicates a belief that specialists utilize know-how more than concentrated attention. Also important are the responses to C.15, C.16, and C.18.

Table X

Discriminant Function on Perceptions of
Specialist's Activities--Six Role Types by Two Specialist Types
(Role Responses, Controlled for Specialist Type Described)

Question	Observed Combined Means for: Remedial Spec.	Clinical Spec.	Elem. Teachers	Secondary Teachers	Principals	Central Office Admin.	Discr. Funct. Coef.
C.15 How is the specialist's time and attention divided between: A. Helping teachers in the performance of their work, and B. Working directly with students.	1.19*	1.19*	1.18*	1.24*	1.24*	1.42*	-.34
C.16 In their work with students how do the specialists divide their time and attention between: A. Diagnosis/testing/observation, and B. Instruction or treatment.	.44	1.06	.12	.55	.59	.90	.59
C.18 How do the specialists divide their effort between: A. Bringing children up to grade level, and B. Promoting individual growth and development.	.56	.06	.83	.82	.65	.79	-.54
C.19 Does the specialist teacher seem to emphasize: A. Services which the regular teacher does not have time or opportunity to provide, or B. Services which the regular teacher does not know how to provide.	.03	.38	-.20	-.73	.32	.79	.63

* Positive means indicate "more activity B", Negative means indicate "more activity A".

Roy's Criterion (M = 0; N = 91.5, S = 4) = .1702 (p .01)

Group Centroids	-.06	.78	-.53	-.79	.14	.46

High discriminant scores would indicate a belief that specialists tend to help teachers more and students less, that they provide more instruction or treatment and less testing and that they are more concerned with student achievement and less with development.

When we look at how the various groups tend to score on this function, we see again that there is a divergence of views between clinical specialists and the non-specialist teaching personnel. The central office supervisors share the perspective of the clinical specialists while principals and remedial specialists are in the middle. It should be noted that this discriminant function examines the overall view of all specialist services by each role group. The differences in the perceptions of clinical and remedial specialists have been controlled in this analysis. Hence the analysis shows that clinical specialists and central office administrators believe that the total special education program works on the basis of specialized techniques to help teachers bring children up to grade level through programs of instruction and treatment. Non-specialist teachers, however, are more likely to believe that the special education program utilizes concentrated attention and testing to assist students directly in their individual growth and development.

Finding #5: When controlled for the role biases just described, the data show that there is a general agreement regarding the differences in the balance of time and attention between remedial and clinical specialists.

Utilizing the same four questions just discussed (C.15, C.16, C.18, and C.19) the data produces a significant multiple discriminant function for the differences between specialist types when role effects are controlled. As presented in Table XI, remedial specialists are viewed as more helpful to teachers (although all specialists are student oriented),

Table XI

Question	Observed Combined Means For: Remedial Specialists	Clinical Specialists	Standard Discriminant Function Coefficient
C.15 (Help teachers vs. Work directly with students)	1.17	1.31	-.54
C.16 (Diagnosis/testing vs. Instruction or treatment)	.67	.19	.79
C.18 (Bringing up to grade level vs. Individual development)	.47	.90	-.41
C.19 (Time/opportunity vs. Know-how services)	-.19	.27	-.52
Roy's Criterion (M = 1.0; N= 91.5; s = 1) = .3114 (p .0002)			
Group Centroids	.38	-.38	

more devoted to instruction and treatment (rather than testing), favoring achievement goals more, and less likely to utilize special knowledge than are clinical specialists. These findings confirm the propriety of calling these specialists remedial in their work orientation.

Finding #6: Remedial specialists display an important divergence from all other respondents when it comes to describing their work approach.

In characterizing the work approach of each of the specialist types, all of the role sub-groups agree that remedial specialists are most like

regular classroom teachers and that clinical specialists are most like psychological or medical specialists except the remedial specialists themselves. This group, alone among the respondents, reverses these perceptions and sees their own orientations as highly clinical, while seeing the clinical specialists as more nearly like regular teachers (see Table XII). It is difficult to tell whether this perception arises because of an ideological norm among remedial specialists that they should be more clinical than they are seen by others to be, or from a misperception by others of the orientation remedial specialists actually use. In either case, the importance of this divergence should be pointed out. With the control of specialist activity being rooted deeply in work orientation, the smooth functioning of these specialist roles depends heavily on consistency among all segments of the school staff in their views about each others' work approaches.

Table XII

Perception of Specialist Work Approach (C.14)
Least Squares Estimated Means

	Remedial Specialists	Clinical Specialists
14.1 Like Regular Teacher	3.03*	2.26
14.2 Like Admin./Supervisor	2.16	1.81
14.3 Like Psycho-Medical Specialist	2.70	2.88*
14.4 Like Instruc. Asst./Aide	1.83	1.38

*Largest score for work approach.

Perceptions by Remedial Specialists

14.1 Like Regular Teacher	2.72	2.44*
14.2 Like Admin./Supervisor	2.39	1.88
14.3 Like Psycho-Medical Specialist	3.22*	2.33
14.4 Like Instruc. Asst./Aide	1.61	1.56

Finding #7: Among specialists who take a normalization, casework orientation toward their work, there is a great deal of "down time" which results from having to negotiate the work schedule and recruit teachers who are willing to participate in the normalization of exceptional children.

Although this is the least fully supported of the major findings in this study it has an important bearing on public policy for specialized educational services. In a careful analysis of the lone normalization specialist studied in the ethnographic part of this research it was discovered that she spends very large portions of her time working in ways which are not directly relevant to the needs of exceptional children. First, as shown on Table XIII, she spends about two-thirds of her time in regular classrooms and one-third in her own resource room. Of the time spent in the regular classroom about one-third is devoted to assisting non-certified students and generally being helpful to the regular teacher in the operation of the classroom. During the remainder of this time in regular classrooms, when she is working with the certified children, the timing, content and general format of that work is determined by the regular classroom teacher who is clearly the "lead teacher" of the team effort. When the specialist is in her resource room she spends about two-thirds of her time and attention serving non-certified children who have been identified as in the "reading group" or other instructional group with certified children. Hence, only about 11% of this normalization specialist's time and effort is devoted exclusively to certified children in a format and on subject matter chosen just to meet their needs. There are at least two reasons for this result. First, the social obligations to non-specialist teachers which are incurred as a result of the fact that the specialist must win their support and willingness to participate in the specialist

program are quite high. This leads the specialist to work with problem children and otherwise to "help out" the cooperating teacher in order to show her gratitude for that teacher's willingness to cooperate. Secondly, the normalization approach is predicated on the assumption that the specialist will deal with "children's problems" not just with "problem children"--hence, the specialist must not be too narrowly focused on certified children. The costs of this approach, in terms of the "down time" for the specialist who is not giving specialized services (or not giving them to those with certified needs is much higher than has been generally expected. Some steps can be taken, however, to reduce the down time by reducing the level of social obligations incurred because the specialists must recruit the cooperating teachers more or less on their own.

Table XIII

The Percentage of the School Week the Specialist Works in Various Settings and With Various Clients (Qualities of Students)

The LD Specialist's Clients:

The LD Specialist's Work Location:	Certified LD Students		Primarily Non-certified Students		
Resource Room	11%	(21%)*	23%	(49%)	34%
		(32%)		(68%)	(100%)
Regular Classrooms	42%	(79%)	24%	(51%)	66%
		(64%)		(36%)	(100%)
	53%	(100%)	47%	(100%)	100%

*The numbers within parentheses are the percentages within columns or rows.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCULSIONS

This research has identified two broad approaches to the structuring of specialist teaching roles for providing services to exceptional children: a clinical-therapeutic approach, and a remedial-instructional approach. Approximately 13% of the teaching staff, at least in Riverside County, is involved in one or the other of these two types of professional work roles.

When the clinical approach is taken, the work is characterized by a more intense interest in diagnostic procedures and the development of specific therapeutic techniques. The attention of the specialist is on relieving or at least minimizing theeffects of the burden which the child's exceptional need imposes upon him. The treatments developed may involve either psychomedical techniques for relief of problems, or it may involve prescribing specialized environments for the child which do not have the characteristics which cause his exceptionality to become a burden.

When the remedial instruction approach is taken, the work is characterized by special instructional activities rather than therapeutic techniques. The attention of the remedial specialist is focused on the academic achievement of the child through the development of programs which enable him to be successful in the normal school environment, despite his exceptional needs, if at all possible. The remedial approach may involve some therapeutic techniques, but they are utilized in order to enhance achievement, not because therapy is an end in itself.

Within the remedial approach we have identified two different ways of structuring the specialist teacher roles: the categorical problem or program approach, and the institutional normalization or casework approach. When policy-makers take the remedial approach to exceptionality which identifies various types of achievement problems which occur frequently in the schools --such as reading or math achievement--and then organizes the work of the specialists so that each specialist works with students who have the

same special needs, there emerges a categorical program approach to remediation. When, by contrast, the work is structured so that each specialist takes a wholistic responsibility for the ongoing achievement of certain identified student-clients whose problems may be diverse or perhaps not even clearly defined except by some such broad characterization as "being two years below grade level", we find an institutional normalization or casework specialist role emerging.

Perhaps the most important single finding in this research has been the discovery that the inclination to take one or another of these three perspectives (clinical therapeutic, categorical program, or normalization casework) with regard to special education is by no means evenly distributed across the professionals who work in various key roles. The clinical specialists and the central office staff members are strong supporters of the clinical-therapeutic approach, although the clinical specialists also warmly support the normalization approach to remedial instruction. The administrators, particularly at the site level, and secondary teachers have a tendency to support the categorical problem solving approach to remedial instruction, while the non-specialist elementary teachers and the remedial specialists are the champions of a normalization approach.

A little reflection leads to the conclusion that these biases are the natural consequences of how each of these groups is related to the school organization. Central office administrators are "intervention" oriented. They see that their job is to focus the resources and technical skills needed to meet and solve identifiable problems which are "out there in the schools". As a result, they naturally want to have at their disposal specialists who are highly skilled and loyal to the central office who will bring consultation skills and technical expertise into the schools to improve their overall performance. Site level administrators are much more program-organiza-

tion minded, and they search for the recurrent and categorizable problems around which to build effective programs. The non-specialist teachers, however, are in the midst of an ongoing enterprize in the classroom. Their concern is to keep children integrated into the mainstream of classroom activity and to have children who cannot keep up either given specialized support to keep-up or assigned to another program. If, as the literature on the Master Plan suggests, Resource Specialists are to take a normalization and casework orientation, then the natural orientation of teachers, principals, and central office administrators is going to be a vital force in either establishing or inhibiting the success of the Resource Specialist program.

Before leaving this subject we would offer a possible interpretation about why only three orientations toward exceptionality are likely to emerge. One dominant theme in the establishment of primary work groups for specialist teachers, has been the development of a common work orientation or approach among the members of the work group. We believe that the major reason for this insistence upon a common orientation is that school professionals cannot afford to have the students or their parents exposed to conflicting professional judgments about what the best educational program for the child is. This need to protect against exposure of conflicting professional judgments arises because only a unanimous professional opinion about sound educational programs enables the schools to gain the cooperation and compliance of their clients. When clients can pick and choose among alternative professional judgments, they can also effectively resist pressures to cooperate.

Since the education professionals clearly do not have unanimity regarding the best approach to schooling, of either particular individuals or whole classes, they must find a way of suppressing their conflicts when in

the presence of the clients. There have developed three ways to do this. First, the clients can be separated so that they "belong to" only one professional at a time. This is how individual classrooms came to be organized and why it has been so difficult for outsiders to penetrate the classroom. Second, the clients can be fragmented so that professionals do not hold or express judgments about problems which belong to another professional's domain. Thus, the history teacher does not teach english, and the psychologist does not teach reading. Finally, the problem can be overcome if the cooperating professionals have no divergent judgments to expose. This is possible if they take similar approaches to the work, based on similar psychological and pedagogical theories. In order for this to happen, each professional must identify what we have called a primary work group. This primary work group must invest substantially in time and effort to develop a common work ideology and to come to agreements about the educational consequences for each client they encounter which are implied by the work ideology.

It is, of course, possible to avoid the consequences of professional disagreement if one or more of the educators has no professional standing. This appears to be the reason for the relatively easy entry of instructional aides into the classroom.

In the development of a normalization approach to exceptional children, only the development of a common work ideology will provide a basis for protecting the client from conflicting professional judgments. The other two approaches are simply incompatible with a working relationship in which clients are integrated into the mainstream educational experiences while specialist teachers retain a wholistic view of the child and his needs.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Twelve recommendations for training, policy-making, and research on the use of specialized teachers within the public school system are presented in this section. They represent only the most obvious ones to be derived from this study, and are presented in order to reveal some of the most important implications of this study.

V. A. Training Recommendations

The first two recommendations concern the training of specialist and non-specialist school personnel in order to optimize the chances that the Resource Specialist program will successfully produce normalization of exceptional children within the public school setting.

Recommendation #1: Not only specialist teachers but also regular classroom teachers, school site administrators, and central office personnel responsible for supervision of special educational services should be given specific training in the role expectations and work ideology appropriate to the Resource Specialist role within the school.

The research presented in this report has demonstrated convincingly that any specialist teaching role will be seriously affected by the expectations for it which are held by the teachers and administrators with whom the specialist will work. Furthermore, the research suggests that these groups have diverse views on the most effective work approaches to be taken toward the problems of exceptional children.

First, this research found that there is a strong tendency for central office administrators to view special education services as clinical or therapeutic in nature and thus to de-emphasize the difficulties encountered by classroom teachers in trying to maintain order and discipline in the

relatively crowded environment of the typical classroom. If Resource Specialists are to be able to achieve a normalization approach to the education of exceptional children they will need special education supervisors who both understand and encourage the integration of remedial, achievement oriented, and classroom management techniques into the work responsibilities of Resource Specialist teachers. Central office supervisors need to encourage Resource Specialists to acknowledge the specialized skills of classroom management and instruction which, though not effective for some exceptional children, may be efficiently utilized by regular classroom teachers.

School principals and other site level administrators should be trained to become more aggressive, involved managers of special educational services. One of the natural and most troublesome consequences of the tendency on the part of specialist teachers and their supervisors to view special education as an essentially therapeutic enterprize which is based on the utilization of highly specialized techniques has been the tendency on the part of principals to allow the central offices to take the lead in defining the nature and purpose of specialized services. As a result, special educational services tend to be "in" but not "of" the school program. In order for the Resource Specialist teacher to take a normalization approach toward exceptional children it will be necessary for the school principals to get over their reluctance to understand or grapple with the management of the special education program and to take major responsibility for helping identify the children whose exceptional needs warrant specialized assistance and insuring the coordination of the specialized services so that they are given to the children who need them in the quantity and at the times when it will do the most good. The research upon which this report is based has demonstrated clearly that the failure of the school principal to actively

coordinate the delivery of specialist services imposes a very large "down time" penalty on the specialist teachers who must then work long hours to nurture the participation and cooperation of the regular classroom teachers.

Perhaps the most difficult and challenging training need identified by this research is that recommended for regular classroom teachers. Regular classroom teachers are ambivalent about the need for and the utilization of specialist services. Some fear that if they refer children to specialists they will be viewed as less than fully competent to do their work. Others feel that specialist teachers do not understand the demands of the crowded regular classroom and do not adequately consider their problems. The result is that specialist teachers find it awkward or difficult to get the cooperation of teachers with whom they must share student-clients. Regular classroom teachers need to be helped to understand the potential division of labor which could be developed in their relationships with Resource Specialists and other specialist teachers. In order for this to be accomplished, regular classroom teachers need to learn 1) that there are good pedagogical and social reasons for placing exceptional children into regular classroom environments even if they complicate these classrooms to some extent, 2) that adequate utilization of specialist teachers can enable them to significantly improve the achievement of exceptional children assigned to them, and 3) that their own abilities to deal with the problems of exceptionality could be significantly improved through a close working relationship with specialist teachers.

Recommendation #2: In addition to training in the specialized instructional, testing, and therapeutic techniques which they are expected to utilize in their work with exceptional children, Resource Specialist teachers should be provided with substantial training in the interpersonal skills associated with conflict management, staff

development, and small group decision-making.

If normalization of the exceptional child is to be achieved, specialist personnel will be required to work very closely with a fairly large number of non-specialists. The more efficiently these interpersonal relationships are handled the more time and attention the specialist can give to the exceptional child's needs. As the literature on team teaching efforts has demonstrated, and as this research has confirmed, close professional working relationships invarably involve recurrent conflicts and fairly complicated decision processes. Skill in these two areas will release the Resource Specialist from the tendency to get bogged down in planning services which never get delivered. Resource Specialists, however, must go beyond facilitating the planning and delivery of specialized services so as to assist regular teachers to develop their abilities to assist exceptional children with learning. It is therefore important that the Resource Specialists approach other teaching personnel with an interest in, and capability for, staff development. This requires an ability to involve regular teachers in enhancing their own skills, and in rendering special education techniques understandable.

V. B. Recommendation Regarding Policy

The following five recommendations concern policy decisions which would, on the basis of the research reported here, contribute to the effective development of the Resource Specialist role.

Recommendation #3: The regular classroom teacher should be given significant influence over the role definition for Resource Specialists by requiring that a significant proportion of all specialized services are provided within the regular classroom setting

As was argued in the body of this report, the regular classroom teachers,

at least at the elementary school level, have the most immediate concern with the development of normalization for exceptional children within their classrooms. Of course there are, and will continue to be, children whose exceptional needs are so severe as to make their participation in regular classroom activities impossible. For some other children the special educational services which best meet their needs require the children to be taken from the regular classroom setting for part of the school day. In other cases, however, exceptional children are removed to special rooms only because this procedure simplifies the difficulties encountered when regular and specialist teachers share the same student-clients. The evidence from this research suggests that providing special education services outside the regular classroom tends to be associated with a clinical or categorical problem orientation on the part of the specialist, while the normalization approach is developed by specialists who work closely with regular teachers in their classrooms. It seems quite likely, therefore, that the best strategy to insure that Resource Specialists will take a normalization approach to their work is to insist that they spend a significant part of the school day in a regular classroom working closely with non-specialist teachers. This working relationship should be based on the natural, informal negotiations which typically arise when colleagues with equal rank in an organization are required to share the planning and execution of their joint work. Neither the Resource Specialist nor the regular classroom teacher should have supervisory authority over the other. Rather, each should be encouraged to share equally in responsibility for the student-clients which they share.

Recommendation #4: The school principal or other site level administrator should be given responsibility and authority for the coordination of regular and specialist educational services by 1) controlling

the certification of exceptional needs for children who are to be assigned to specialists for special educational services, and 2) controlling the assignment of exceptional children to regular and specialist teachers who will thereby be required to cooperate in the development of an educational program.

Although the best way to secure a normalization approach to special education is to create a need for specialist and regular teachers to work together closely and informally to meet the needs of exceptional children, there are serious costs to the efficiency of both professionals' work which tend to result. Particularly when trying to determine which children should receive how much service, and again when trying to secure the cooperation of non-specialist teachers, the specialists are required to spend an inordinate amount of just securing a favorable climate of cooperation and participation from non-specialist teachers. If principals, with their higher rank, would establish clearly the identities of the children and the teachers to be involved in various types of specialist programs, a great deal of the "down time" associated with the normalization approach could be eliminated. Instead of negotiating over who would participate, the specialists and regular teachers should be negotiating over which services are most needed to meet the needs of exceptional children and who can best provide those services.

Recommendation #5: The primary role of the central office special education staff should be to insure that the Resource Specialists (as well as other specialist teachers) have the technical and interpersonal skills required for the discharge of their duties. This means that the central office special education staff should have responsibility for selection, assignment, and in-service training of specialist teachers.

While the classroom teachers contribute most strongly to the development of a normalization approach among Resource Specialists, and school principals can contribute most to the efficient delivery of special services to the exceptional children, it is the central office administrative staff which most often has the interest and the expertise required to assure that specialist teachers will be able to utilize special and innovative instructional or therapeutic techniques. The most effective means of controlling the technical competence of teachers lies in selection, assignment and in-service training. By giving central office supervisors responsibility for these aspects of the Resource Specialist's role definition, policy makers would increase the liklihood that specialists would possess high levels of skill and would utilize those skills to the maximum extent feasible.

Recommendation #6: In order to optimize and maintain the flexibility required by the normalization approach to special education, it is recommended that specialist teachers always be funded at least partially from non-categorical funds in each district's general expense budget.

Categorical funding creates two distinct problems for specialist services. First, specialist teachers supported by categorical funds tend to acquire a categorical problem approach toward exceptional children. With this categorical problem approach they tend to narrow their perception of children, loose touch with each child's progress and therefore loose the work satisfaction most important to teachers. The second problem created by full categorical funding is the inability of the specialist to serve children whose exceptional needs don't quite fit categorical definitions but are nevertheless real and could be treated successfully by a specialist. The narrowing of the specialist's attention to serving only

those children whose problems can be certified under some categorical program causes considreable needless friction between specialist and non-specialist teachers as the decision about which children can be served becomes tightly bounded.

Of course it must also be recognized that the specialist positions are created in order to meet the identifiable needs of exceptional children, not merely to provide multiple resources for the more typical child. Hence the specification that an identifiable fraction of a specialist's support is specifically intended to provide services to identified exceptional children should not be abandoned. The recommendation is that the specialist be clearly funded to serve both children whose exceptional need can be certified and those whose exceptionality is either too subtle, too infrequent, or too temporary to be formally certified. Probably the categorical funding/non-categorical funding should range between a 60%/40% to an 80%/20% ratio.

Recommendation #7: The necessary steps should be taken to turn the Resource Specialist role into a career position within school systems.

Some tasks are best performed by persons who are seeking to demonstrate proficiency in their work in order to gain the attention of their superiors and get promoted to a higher ranking position. Generally, these are jobs where there is little intrinsic satisfaction derived from the work itself. In the case of a normalization approach to specialized services for exceptional children, however, it is important that the specialist teacher derive work satisfaction directly from the achievement of the children and their integration into the educational mainstream. Only when the specialist takes work satisfaction directly from the accomplishment of the children can they be expected to maintain the sensitivity and extraordinary attention that this work requires.

There are at least four characteristics of career positions within schools: 1) the positions are interchangable between schools and school districts, so that a person could seek out the position at a different location and move to the job; 2) there exist professional or quasi-professional organizations among individuals in the career, so that there is a sense of collegeality and professional work standards; 3) there is a definable growth pattern for persons holding this career position, so that some are clearly "senior" and others "junior" members of the career group; and 4) the number of persons moving into the position primarily as training for higher ranking positions is not large compared to the number who seek the position as an end in itself, perhaps even expecting to reach retirement age in that position. School policy-makers can contribute support to the development of Resource Specialist careers in each of these four areas. The sponsorship of a communication system among Resource Specialists and to building of a quasi-professional society to strengthen their self-identity as career specialists is probably the most important first step in this process.

V. C. Implications for Further Research

There is much to be learned about the organization and administration of specialized educational services in the school systems. The research presented in this report has barely scratched the surface of this too long neglected aspect of the work which goes on within the public schools. While many more potentially significant research problems could be found within the framework of the work begun here, five research problems for further study are proposed as particularly important for the immediate future.

Recommendation #8: The impact of collective bargaining on the organization and operation of specialist teaching positions should be carefully examined.

Since the research reported here found significant differences in work orientations as well as specific activities on the part of specialized teachers, and since specialists and non-specialists are to be covered under a single collective bargaining contract, it is important to know how the collective bargaining process affects the development of specialist teaching roles and the delivery of special educational services. Although it might initially appear that the specialist teachers represent too small a segment of the total teaching staff to seriously affect negotiations, it must be remembered that specialist teachers are far more mobile and communicate on a daily basis far more intensely with other teachers. It may well be that collective bargaining contract proposals will reflect substantially the aspirations of specialist teachers. Whether specialists have a large or small impact on the contract proposals, however, is probably less important in the long run than whether contract agreements provide for the development or the reduction, of specialized services, and what forms of specialization receive the most effective support.

Recommendation #9: Research on the relationships between decentralization of school management and the operation of specialized services is needed.

If, as has been demonstrated by this research, the operation of special education services depends significantly on the characteristics of the local school site, and if, as the proponents of decentralized school site management desire, decentralization gives the principal a much more powerful role in the organization and control of specialist services, it is important to know what can be expected to happen to Resource Specialist (and other specialist teachers)

roles when a district adopts a decentralized management approach.

Recommendation #10: Careful examination is needed of the relationships between the three identified orientations toward specialist teaching (i.e., the clinical, the categorical problem, and the normalization approaches) and the major alternatives found within the educational mainstream (e.g., traditional, progressive, fundamental, individualized, etc.).

Whether rightly or wrongly, specialist teachers have very strong feelings about the efficacy of various regular classroom teaching approaches for meeting the needs of exceptional children. These strong feelings are by no means confined to a simple approval of one approach and rejection of others. Rather, various regular classroom approaches are viewed as required for different exceptional problems. These judgments by specialists regarding the relationships between their own work and the approach taken in regular classroom instruction are sufficiently clear, and deeply enough held to deserve careful scrutiny through formal research efforts. If, as specialist teachers seem to believe, the combined effect of the regular classroom and the specialist approaches is crucial to the educational progress of children with exceptional needs, the discovery of which combinations are most effective in responding to what particular exceptional needs is of great importance to the overall special education programs.

Recommendation #11: Research is needed to determine whether the effectiveness of special educational services depends primarily on the utilization of certain special instructional or therapeutic techniques or whether it is the ability of the specialist to give needed special time and attention to exceptional children and their problems which is the more critical factor.

One significant disagreement about the basis for effectiveness in special education programs which surfaced in the course of the research presented in this report is whether exceptional children are helped because they get needed attention individually or in small groups or because they have diagnosable problems requiring the specialized thecniques for treating those problems found within special education programs. While there were significant differences between respondent groups as to whether time and attention or special techniques were more important, there was also a diversity of opinion within each of the groups surveyed. No information gathered in this research sheds needed light on this problem. Research conducted by a team of researchers who understand both the range of special education techniques and the sociology of the school might go far in helping explain how special education services achieve their results.

Recommendation #12: Replication, extension and refinement of the data gathered for the research reported here is also recommended. It is especially important to gather systematic data to test the reliability of the three models of special education (i.e., the clinical approach and the categorical problem and normalization remedial approaches to the work) for interpreting the full range of special education programs over a broader sampling of school districts.

The conclusions drawn from the relatively modest research venture represented by this report are too far-reaching in their consequences to permit a single study to be their only basis. Furthermore, since the ethnographic observational phase of this study was conducted more or less simultaneously with the statistical survey phase, there are important aspects of the interpretation presented in this report which were only fully conceptualized after the survey instrument had been completed. Thus, as has been

obvious in the body of this report, the statistical data does not always represent the best imaginable test of the hypotheses developed from the observational data. Most important of all in further work on this research problem is a careful distinction between normalization specialists (of whom there appear to be very few in the schools) and other remedial specialists (of whom there are many). Further research should specify in advance the operational characteristics of normalization special education, and then empirically determine the frequency with which the normalization approach is utilized and the organizational, personal, and ideological conditions under which this approach is optimized.

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[43] Throughout the analysis of the descriptive statistics presented in this sub-section the computer program entitled "Statistical Package for the Social Sciences" was utilized. For a Complete description of this program and its capabilities see: Norman H. Nie, et. al., SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd Edition, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1975.

[44] Dan C. Lortie, Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study, Chicago, Ill: The University of Chicago Press, 1975.

[45] See especially David K. Cohen, "Politics and Research: Evaluation of Social Action Programs in Education," Review of Education Research, 40,

42, (1970), pp. 213-238, and D. K. Cohen and M. S. Garet, "Reforming Educational Policy with Applied Social Research," Harvard Educational Review, 45, No. 1 (Feb., 1975), pp. 17-43.

[46] Complete documentation of this program is found in Jeremy D. Finn, A General Model for Multivariate Analysis, New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, Inc., 1974. The University of California, Riverside computer center currently utilizes the 1968 (Version 4) edition of the Finn Program. That version was utilized throughout this research for discriminant analysis and analysis of variance data processing.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONAIRE AND COVER LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, RIVERSIDE

BERKELEY • DAVIS • IRVINE • LOS ANGELES • RIVERSIDE • SAN DIEGO • SAN FRANCISCO

SANTA BARBARA • SANTA CRUZ

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
RIVERSIDE, CALIFORNIA 92502

Dear Fellow Educator:

The School of Education, University of California, Riverside, has received a grant from the California State Department of Education to study the work of specialists in the schools especially as it relates to special education and the State Master Plan for Special Education. This research will serve an important function in supporting the development of program planning for the Resource Specialist position.

We are inviting you to respond to the attached questionnaire which includes a number of questions dealing with the work of various specialist teachers in the schools, the kinds of job related activities in which they are frequently engaged, and your evaluations of selected aspects of programs for children with exceptional needs.

Although this study has not originated with the school district, and is not in any way a part of the official work responsibility of school district employees, the district has been most cooperative in helping identify you as part of a representative sample and has encouraged us to seek your cooperation. Your responses to the questionnaire will be held in strictest confidence. The enclosed self-addressed return envelope will bring your completed questionnaire directly to my office.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Most sincerely yours,

Douglas E. Mitchell
Assistant Professor
of Education

Encl.
DEM:nwr

CODE:_____/_____/_____

PART A. THESE QUESTIONS ARE ABOUT YOU AND YOUR PRESENT POSITION. Please fill in the blanks or circle the number of the appropriate answer for each question.

A.1 What is your present job title?_____

A.2 What, if any, is your special area?_____

A.3 How long have you held this position?

1. less than 1 year
2. 1 or 2 years
3. 3 or 4 years
4. 5 or 6 years
5. 7 or 8 years
6. 9 or more years

A.4 What position did you hold prior to the one you have now?_____

A.5 What is the title of your immediate supervisor?_____

A.6 Where are you normally located?

1. In a district or county central office
2. At a single school site
3. At more than one school site (How many?_____)

A.7 What type of space do you occupy at your normal work location(s)?

1. Regular classroom(s), working alone or with an aide(s).
2. Classroom space(s), working with one or more other teachers.
3. Specially designed classroom(s) such as laboratories, shops, art rooms, etc.
4. Regular classroom(s) for special purposes, e.g. learning centers, LD, gifted classrooms, etc.
5. Personal office space.
6. Office space shared with one or more others.
7. No space is assigned to you.
8. Other (Please explain:_____)

A.8 Do you have supervision responsibility for the work of other school employees?

1. Yes, including certificated employees
2. Yes, but limited to instructional aide(s)
3. Yes, other classified employees
4. No

A.9 What type(s) of credential(s) do you hold?

1. Teaching credential(s) (Please describe:_____)
2. Specialist credential(s) (Please describe:_____)
3. Administrative credential(s) (Please describe:_____)

A.10 Are you now enrolled or have you completed a graduate degree or other special certification program (exclusive of credentials)?

1. Master's degree, Specialization_____Yr. of Completion_____)
2. Doctoral degree, Specialization_____Yr. of Completion_____)
3. Other certification, Area_____Yr. of Completion_____)

A.11 What is your sex?

1. Male
2. Female

A.12 To what age group do you belong?

1. 25 or younger
2. 26 to 35
3. 36 to 45
4. 46 to 55
5. 56 or older

A.13 What is your ethnic background?

1. Asian-American
2. Black
3. Caucasian
4. Mexican-American
5. Native American
6. Other

PART B. THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERN YOUR OWN WORK. Please circle the response which best answers each question.

B.1 Which of the following best characterizes the focus of your work assignment?

1. Work primarily with other professional or classified employees
2. Work primarily with regular class(es) of students
3. Do primarily specialized work with selected small groups or individual students
4. Both 1 and 2
5. Both 1 and 3
6. Both 2 and 3
7. Other (Please explain:_____)

	Mostly Activity A	More A than B	About Equally	More B than A	Mostly Activity B	Don't know, No opinion
B.2 In your work with other professionals, how would you say that your time and attention are divided between: A. Planning programs (e.g., discussing needs, identifying alternatives, selecting plans, etc.) and B. Implementing programs (e.g., negotiating schedules and assignments, analyzing particular students problems, developing materials, etc.) Circle:	1	2	3	4	5	X
**IF YOU WORK ENTIRELY WITH OTHER PROFESSIONALS, CHECK HERE ☐ AND SKIP TO QUESTION #B.7						
B.3 In your work with students, how is your time and attention divided between: A. Observation, diagnosis or testing and B. Instructional or treatment services Circle:	1	2	3	4	5	X
B.4 In your instructional or treatment work with students, how is your time and attention divided between: A. Instruction for academic achievement and B. Treatment to remove or reduce problems or handicaps Circle:	1	2	3	4	5	X
**IF YOU WORK ENTIRELY WITH REGULAR CLASSES OF STUDENTS, CHECK HERE ☐ AND SKIP TO QUESTION #B.7						
B.5 In your work with selected small groups or individual students, how is your time and attention divided between: A. Working with them in their regular classrooms and B. Working with them outside the regular classroom Circle:	1	2	3	4	5	X

B.6 In your work with selected small groups or individual students, what is the basis for their selection? (Circle all appropriate reasons)

1. Academic performance
2. Classroom behavior
3. Extra-curricular activities
4. Mental ability
5. Physical handicaps
6. Psychological disturbance
7. Other (Please explain:_____)

B.7 In the course of your work, how frequently do you contact other professionals in each of the following categories?

	More or less daily	Quite frequently	Often	Occasionally	Seldom or never
-Regular classroom teachers	1	2	3	4	5
-Principals or vice principals	1	2	3	4	5
-School psychologists or psychometrists	1	2	3	4	5
-Exceptional needs specialists (e.g. reading, SH, LDG, EMR, TMR, Speech therapists, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
-Enrichment specialists (e.g., music, art, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
-Emergency specialists (e.g., nurses, child welfare)	1	2	3	4	5

PART C. THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE CONCERNED WITH YOUR VIEWS ON THE WORK OF SPECIALIST TEACHERS SERVING CHILDREN WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS, such as remedial reading or math specialist, educationally handicapped teachers, or others dealing with mental retardation, emotional disturbances, speech or communication problems, etc.

In responding to the questions in this section would you begin by identifying two (2) specialist teachers serving children with exceptional needs. Choose specialists with whom you have some familiarity and who have different specializations. Then answer each question twice--once for each specialist you have in mind. If you are yourself a specialist teacher please include yourself as Specialist A in responding to the questions.

		ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST A	ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST B
C.1	What is the job title for each specialist you have in mind? (write "myself" in column A if you are a specialist teacher)		
C.2	What is the title of each specialist's immediate supervisor?		
C.3	How many school sites does each specialist regularly work at?	1. Only one 2. Two 3. Three or more 4. Unknown	1. Only one 2. Two 3. Three or more 4. Unknown
C.4	Are children specially transported to each specialist's program location?	1. Yes 2. No 3. Unknown	1. Yes 2. No 3. Unknown
C.5	Does each specialist have non-instructional duties similar to regular classroom teachers (such as bus/lunchroom/playground supervision, committee assignments, etc.)	1. Yes 2. No 3. Unknown	1. Yes 2. No 3. Unknown
C.6	Approximately how many different children does each specialist work with during a typical week?	1. Under 10 2. 10 to 20 3. 21 to 30 4. 31 to 40 5. Over 40 6. Unknown	1. Under 10 2. 10 to 20 3. 21 to 30 4. 31 to 40 5. Over 40 6. Unknown

		ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST A	ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST B
C.7	Approximately how many regular classroom teachers does each specialist work with during a typical week?	1. None 2. 1 or 2 3. 3 or 4 4. 5 or 6 5. 7 or more 6. Unknown	1. None 2. 1 or 2 3. 3 or 4 4. 5 or 6 5. 7 or more 6. Unknown
C.8	Generally what is the grade level of the children served by each specialist? (Circle all appropriate answers)	1. Primary (K-3) 2. Elem. (4-6) 3. Middle (7-8 or 9) 4. Hi Sch (9/10-12) 5. Other:_____	1. Primary (K-3) 2. Elem. (4-6) 3. Middle (7-8 or 9) 4. Hi Sch (9/10-12) 5. Other:_____

		ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST A						ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST B					
		Little or none	A small amount	Some	Quite a bit	A great deal	Don't know	Little or none	A small amount	Some	Quite a bit	A great deal	Don't know
C.9	How much time does the specialist spend:												
	- Working with children one at a time	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Working with small groups of children	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Working in a regular classroom	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Working in a special room or office	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.10	How much influence does the specialist have in deciding which students to work with?	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.11	How much influence does the specialist have in deciding which teachers to work with?	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.12	How much control does the specialist have over the placement of children in regular classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.13	How much difficulty does the specialist have securing the cooperation of:												
	- Regular classroom teachers	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- School principals	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Central office staff personnel	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Students and their families	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.14	To what extent does the specialist's approach or work philosophy seem:												
	- Like that of a regular classroom teacher	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Like that of an administrator or supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Like that of a psychological or medical specialist	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
	- Like that of an instructional assistant or aide	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X

	ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST A						ANSWERS FOR SPECIALIST B					
	Mostly Activity A	More A than B	About equally	More B than A	Mostly Activity B	Don't know	Mostly Activity A	More A than B	About equally	More B than A	Mostly Activity B	Don't know
C.15 How is the specialist's time and attention divided between: A. Helping teachers in the performance of their work and Circle: B. Working directly with students	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.16 In their work with students how do the specialists divide their time and attention between: A. Diagnosis/testing/ observation and Circle: B. Instruction or treatment	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.17 In their work with teachers how do the specialists divide their time and attention between: A. Consultation or verbal assistance and Circle: B. Demonstration types of activities	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.18 How do the specialists divide their effort between: A. Bringing children up to grade level and Circle: B. Promoting individual growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X
C.19 Does the specialist teacher seem to emphasize: A. Services which the regular teacher does not have time or opportunity to provide or Circle: B. Services which the regular teacher does not know how to provide	1	2	3	4	5	X	1	2	3	4	5	X

PART D. THIS SECTION CONTAINS A NUMBER OF STATEMENTS ABOUT SELECTED ASPECTS OF THE WORK OF SPECIALIST TEACHERS WHO WORK WITH CHILDREN WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS. You are asked to indicate how often you feel each statement is true by circling the appropriate number following each statement.

	Seldom or Never	Only occasionally	Sometimes	Quite frequently	Always/Nearly always	Don't Know/No opinion
D.1 In most schools the right types of specialist services are available when needed to meet the needs of exceptional children.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.2 Observation and testing by specialists tend to confirm what regular teachers already know about the problems and needs of exceptional children.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.3 Specialists and regular classroom teachers tend to work together smoothly and cooperatively.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.4 Specialists make important contributions by helping regular classroom teachers understand children's individual differences and diagnose educational problems.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.5 Regular teachers tend to feel that referring children to a specialist will be interpreted as a sign that they are not fully competent.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.6 There are many children who could benefit from specialist assistance so teachers must choose which ones will be referred for help.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.7 Specialist and regular teachers tend to disagree about which children should be placed in special programs.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.8 Regardless of the result of psychological testing, the child's classroom performance provides the best information about educational problems.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.9 Specialist and regular teachers tend to cooperate closely in the planning and development of learning experiences for exceptional children.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.10 It is important for the school principal to coordinate the activities of specialist and regular teachers as it related to the scheduling of children into various programs.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.11 Specialist teachers tend to feel that school psychologists are devoted too much to diagnosis of problems and too little to developing treatment programs.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.12 Specialist teachers tend to feel that principals do not support their work efforts.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.13 Specialists tend to create problems for regular teachers because they do not give adequate attention to matters of classroom organization and control.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.14 Exceptional children should be assigned to a regular classroom teacher responsible for securing any needed specialized help in their education.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.15 Exceptional children should be assigned to specialist teachers who decide when and where they should be given regular classroom experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.16 Children receiving specialist help achieve significantly higher rates of social and academic progress than would be possible without these services.	1	2	3	4	5	X
D.17 The effectiveness of specialist services depends more on the fact that they can give children concentrated individual attention than on any special knowledge or techniques employed.	1	2	3	4	5	X

PLEASE GO BACK AND SEE THAT ALL QUESTIONS HAVE BEEN ANSWERED.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.